

Guide to Research

in

Educational History

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Guide to Research in Educational History

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Preface

Critical observers of the state of educational literature have long ago noticed the perennial tendency toward dogmatism, superficiality, repetitiousness, and bombast. There is little doubt that the skeptical (to use a mild word) attitude toward the field of education in academic circles stems to a large degree from this situation. Many educationists do not yet seem to appreciate the fact that professional respect can only be earned in the open market of scholarship. The more education makes use of the recognized techniques of scholarly inquiry, the better will be its chances of attaining first-class citizenship in the academic community.

One of the few areas in the contemporary organization of education which has distinct possibilities in the realm of scholarship is educational history. For many decades this subject has been presented by instructors who have had little aptitude or training in the scientific aspects of history. Such teachers tended to place altogether too much reliance upon a textbook, which, in many cases, was a compilation of data derived from previously published textbooks. Small wonder, then, that educational history became one of the least popular of the subjects in the teacher-education program. In many institutions this subject has either been totally removed from the curriculum or has been "integrated" with philosophy and sociology to form a hybrid known as "foundations of education." Even the determined and laudable efforts of such scholars as Paul Monroe failed to prevent the decline and fall of educational history. Any professor rash enough to attempt to keep the embers of the scholarly tradition glowing is bound to be branded as a reactionary or, at least, as hopelessly out of step with the wave of the future.

Trends and tendencies are not inevitable. There is ample justification for educationists desiring to raise the standards of their specialty to insist that it utilize the procedures common to all subjects taught in colleges and universities. Prospective teachers must be taught content and scientific method, as well as teaching methodology. This

writer knows of few subdivisions in the field of education that are as suited to the requirements of scholarly inquiry as the history of education. Fundamentally, educational history is a branch of history, having the same relationship to the mother subject as ecclesiastical history, economic history, history of science, and history of music. Too much attention has been focused in the past on the professional aspect of educational history, that is, on its role in teacher preparation. This function is undoubtedly important, but so is the correlative role of educational history as a scientific discipline. Greater emphasis on the dual nature of educational history will go a long way toward establishing this field as a significant and interesting element in the education of teachers and as an acceptable addition to the roster of scholarly subjects.

"Guide to Research in Educational History" represents an attempt to convince faculty and students in departments and schools of education that the study of educational history according to recognized principles and practices of scientific historical research is a far more exciting process than concentration upon mere textbook materials. This is not to imply that no attempts of this sort have been made before: Professors John W. Adamson, Harry G. Good, and Thomas Woody have already labored along these lines. However, except for their efforts and for brief, general treatments in the standard texts on educational research, very little has been done to make the study of educational history follow the canons of historical research. Furthermore, with the exception of some short articles by Good and Woody, there seems to be no study which is concerned with the application of the historical method to concrete examples and problems in the field of education. What the present volume seeks to do, then, is to provide the student with specific instances of how historiographical procedures may be used in educational research. In this way, the author hopes to contribute his bit toward raising the level of the teaching of educational history, as well as of the field of education as a whole.

This research manual is an outcome of several years' experimenta-

tion in the author's classes with a mimeographed outline of historiographical procedures in education. It is designed to meet the needs of students writing undergraduate and graduate term reports, as well as those of candidates for the M.A., Ph.D., and Ed.D. Some of the material might appear at first to be too advanced for writers of semester reports. However, since undergraduate students of history have long employed these techniques, no instructor ought to have serious cause for complaint. After all, he can use the content of the book to guide the students toward a better appreciation of independent thinking, which is one of the basic objectives of higher education today. The annotated bibliographies have been made as extensive as space permits, and numerous references in several foreign languages have been included for the benefit of advanced students and research workers. The detailed table of contents and the subject index make a complete index unnecessary.

Inasmuch as this book is a first attempt in a field which lacks a systematic, full-scale exposition of methodology, the author would be very pleased to obtain the reactions, especially comments on errors and omissions, from professors and students. These will be considered for incorporation into the revised edition.

Acknowledgment is due to the following for aid during the preparation of this manual: to Dr. I. L. Kandel, editor of *School and Society*, Dr. Adolph E. Meyer, professor of education at New York University, and Mrs. Claire W. Roth, New York University Library, for reading portions of the manuscript; to Dr. Ernest R. Wood, professor of education at New York University, for opportunities to present some of the material to his research seminars; to Mrs. Louellen Remmy Beyer, managing editor of *School and Society*, for various suggestions; and to Mr. David Newton, instructor in the Department of Student Life at the College of the City of New York, for preparing the subject index.

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Table of Contents

	PAGE
PREFACE	iii
CHAPTER I	
THE RESEARCH STUDY IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY	1
Values of Research in Educational History	1
Factors in Choosing a Topic	3
Types of Topics for Research	5
Preparing the Outline of the Report	6
CHAPTER II	
THE PRELIMINARY SEARCH FOR INFORMATION	9
Textbooks	9
General History of Education	9
History of American Education	13
Specialized Works and Monographs in Educational History	14
Encyclopedias	32
The Library Card Catalogue	33
Dissertations	34
Indexes	35
CHAPTER III	
THE SEARCH FOR SOURCE MATERIALS	39
General Reference Works	40
Historical Bibliographies	40
Biographical Sources	43
General Historical Works	44
Reference Works in Educational History	46
Bibliographies	46
Biographical Sources	54
Encyclopedias	56
Periodicals	57
Reports	58
Source Collections	58
Yearbooks	72
Special Chapters on Educational History	73
The Background Material of the Report	76

	CHAPTER IV	PAGE
AIDS IN THE WRITING OF HISTORY	79	
General History	79	
Historiography	79	
The Philosophy of History	81	
The History of History	84	
Educational History	86	
Educational Historiography	86	
The History and Values of Educational History	88	
 CHAPTER V 		
APPLYING THE HISTORICAL METHOD OF RESEARCH TO EDUCATION	91	
The Historical Method	91	
Classification of Sources	92	
External and Internal Criticism	93	
Determination of the Facts	95	
Interpretation of the Facts	97	
The Historical Method in Education	98	
Primary Sources	98	
1. Laws	98	
2. Court Decisions and Records	99	
3. Institutional Records	99	
4. Professional Records	101	
5. Published Records	102	
6. Newspaper and Magazine Sources	102	
7. Non-Scholastic Sources	103	
8. Public Documents	104	
9. Remains	105	
10. Pictorial Sources	105	
11. Reproductions	107	
12. Translations	108	
Secondary Sources	108	
1. Evaluation of Textbooks	109	
2. Evaluation of Authorship of Institutional Histories	110	
3. Monographs	112	
4. Errors in Secondary Sources	112	
5. Evaluation of Secondary Statements	114	

	PAGE
Special Problems of Historical Research in Education	116
1. Dating	116
2. Sources of an Educational Idea or Book	122
3. The Determination of Primacy	127
4. Institutional Origins	134
5. The Establishment of Influence	137
6. The Determination of Authorship	148
7. Satire	156
8. Statistics in Educational History	157
Interpretation	161
1. Analogy	161
2. Generalization	162
3. Hypothesis	165
4. <i>Argumentum ex silentio</i>	170
5. Argument a priori	172
6. Bias	172
Synthesis	179
1. Selection of Data	179
2. Chronological Sequence	180
3. Topical Arrangement	181
4. Causality	181
5. Historical Trends	182
6. The Summary	184
7. The Chapter of Historical Background	186
8. The Summary of the Literature on a Topic	188
Conclusion	189

CHAPTER VI

NOTE-TAKING AND DOCUMENTATION	191
Notes	191
Reading Procedures	192
Recording of Quotations	193
The Dangers of Plagiarism	194
Bibliographical Data	196
The Technique of Documentation	197
Footnotes	197

	CHAPTER	PAGE
THE TECHNIQUE OF PRESENTATION	VII	201
Putting Pen to Paper		202
Quotations		202
Initial and Final Drafts		203
The Report as a Unit		204
Subdivisions of the Text		204
The Mechanical Details of the Report		205
CHAPTER VIII		
EVALUATION OF THE RESEARCH REPORT IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY...	209	
Standards for the Term Report		209
A Check-List for the Term Report		210
Standards for Theses and Dissertations		212
Qualifications of the Advanced Educational Historian		214
SUBJECT INDEX	217	

CHAPTER I

The Research Study in Educational History

The research report (term report, course report, or term paper) is a document which presents the results of a systematic investigation of a specific subject. Most undergraduate classes and practically all graduate courses require such a report. Consequently, it is important that serious-minded students try to get the maximum educational value out of this requirement.

VALUES OF RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

To some extent the values of the research report in educational history coincide with those in other subjects. The student improves his technique of planning his project, gathering and organizing data, interpreting findings, and presenting a logical synthesis. Through independent study he gradually increases his skill as a self-reliant seeker of knowledge. His term papers may be preludes to graduate thesis, literary work, professional and business reports, and other forms of verbal expression which demand a background of authentic, clearly interpreted data. The student, furthermore, will be able to write papers in future courses with greater ease. Then there is the feeling of intellectual growth and personal satisfaction which arises from the successful completion of a research project.

2 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

In addition to these general values, the historical report possesses certain particular advantages. The student obtains a specialized knowledge of a definite phase of educational history. There can be no doubt that such knowledge is superior to the elementary information often found in a textbook. By their very nature, historical textbooks tend to treat many interesting topics rather briefly or superficially. Knowledge derived by the research process is more accurate, thorough, precise, and lasting than any obtainable in textbooks and encyclopedias.

The scientific approach to educational history is better appreciated after one has had an opportunity of applying it on a small scale. Too many are prone to take historical works for granted, and it is they who accept uncritically whatever appears between covers. An understanding of the methods by which historical data are authenticated and generalizations are formulated will go a long way toward making the student an independently thinking reader of historical literature.

At the same time the student develops a facility for appraising differing viewpoints on historical and current controversial questions. A careful analysis of the supporting evidence of contrasting opinions is a rational way of arriving at one's own conclusions. Educational historians have expressed varying judgments about the origin, development or significance of certain educational ideas and practices. One who has had experience in examining the evidence is in a good position to take sides intelligently.

The deeper one's acquaintance with the roots of an educational problem, the clearer is his conception of the historical forces and of the interrelationship of school and society. This is not to claim that historical knowledge alone will provide a solution to educational problems. What it can do, however, is to lay the foundation for a better understanding of the questions under consideration.

Finally, the student will acquire the knack of compiling a selective and critical bibliography. The preparation of the term report involves the examination and evaluation of numerous publications.

As the student expands his knowledge of the problem under investigation, he begins to pass judgment on the reading materials which he examines. In time he is able to state definitely which of these are of value for the understanding of his problem.

FACTORS IN CHOOSING A TOPIC

The first question that arises in a student's mind as soon as he learns of the term-report assignment is what topic he should select. Some instructors distribute lists of subjects which are suitable for research. Others offer suggestions to students who request them. As a rule, however, it is better for the student himself to choose the theme of his research, since he is likely to show more enthusiasm and application when the topic is his own "baby."

Before determining the topic that he will study, the student should take account of the following factors:

INTEREST. Genuine interest in a field of inquiry is a prerequisite of success. A student may wish to write about a phase of the history of secondary education because he is a teacher in a high school or he is otherwise concerned with adolescents. Those who are majoring or minoring in mathematics may desire to write on the history of the teaching of this field. Curiosity is a legitimate source of interest in educational history. Anyone who wishes to find out about the education of women a century ago may do research in this area. Other forms of interest may be due to a desire to get away from the customary studies one is pursuing, to investigate a family educational tradition, to learn more about a hobby (children's literature, samplers, etc.), and to contribute to one's professional advancement.

SOURCE MATERIALS. It is obvious that the best topics for research are those which can be treated on the basis of an adequate supply of pertinent source materials. The history of education in Boston is very likely a better term-report subject for a student attending an institution near Boston than for one enrolled in Chicago. A college which has but few books on a particular country is hardly the place

4 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

to undertake a project in the educational history of that country. The student should therefore have a clear idea of the types of writings available to him before the final choice of a topic.

THE TIME FACTOR. Inasmuch as most instructors set a deadline for research reports several weeks before the end of the term, it is well to concentrate on a subject which can be concluded within the requisite period of time. Topics which require frequent trips to collections other than those in the college library or which involve the borrowing of books on inter-library loan should be avoided if the student has to complete his paper within a semester.

RELEVANCE TO COURSE. There should be no need of stressing that the theme of the research report should have a direct bearing upon the scope of the course. Thus, all papers submitted in a course on the history of American education must have some relevance to the course content. A report dealing with the influence of an American educator upon a European educator, or vice versa, is therefore an appropriate subject. The history of the Sunday school in nineteenth-century England is a legitimate topic in a course in the history of modern education. A study of the development of medicine in ancient Egypt (and this was actually proposed by a student in one of the author's classes) is out of place in either of the above-mentioned courses. Since the concept of education is quite broad, there may be a tendency to regard almost anything as belonging to educational history. Consequently, it is advisable to consult the instructor wherever there is doubt as to the appropriateness of the subject.

SPECIALIZED KNOWLEDGE. For some subjects, such as the history of medical education or the development of the education of the handicapped, it is advantageous for the student to have some background which will help him better understand the intricacies of those specialized fields. However, this does not mean that students should be discouraged from undertaking such studies. If they are really interested in their work, they will find some way to obtain information on the technical points. Lack of facility in the use of foreign languages, however, is an almost insurmountable obstacle, and no one

should select a research problem which involves the extensive use of sources in languages which he is unable to read.

TYPES OF TOPICS FOR RESEARCH

As a general principle, it is better to confine oneself to a specific topic such as "Elementary Education in Colonial New York" than to a broad subject such as "The Development of Education in New England." Research of a broad scope is too complicated, and requires much more time and space than the student is able to give to it. Moreover, broad topics tend to encourage superficiality and are almost always based on textbooks and encyclopedias.

The following are classified types of topics, with examples, which are suitable as term reports:

1. PERIOD. "Education during the First Half of the Fifteenth Century."
2. GEOGRAPHICAL REGION. "German Education under Frederick the Great."
3. EDUCATIONAL LEVEL. "The Secondary Schools of Ancient Rome."
4. INSTITUTION. "Amherst College in the Nineteenth Century."
5. BIOGRAPHY. "Bronson Alcott as an Educator." Biographical detail, as such, is of less importance for term-report purposes than an exposition of the man's educational ideas, work, and influence.
6. INNOVATIONS. "Three Decades of Audio-Visual Education."
7. PHILOSOPHY. "Changing Concepts of American Higher Education in the Nineteenth Century."
8. METHODOLOGY. "Herbartianism in American Educational Practice."
9. CURRICULUM. "The Subject of Rhetoric in Ancient Greece."
10. PERSONNEL. "The Role of the Teacher during the Renaissance."
11. CHILDREN. "Changing Attitudes toward Corporal Punishment of Children in the United States."
12. LEGISLATION. "Compulsory School Attendance Laws in Prussia during the Eighteenth Century."
13. MATERIALS. "The Evolution of American School Readers, 1700-1830."
14. NON-SCHOOL AGENCIES. "The Development of the Library in Nineteenth-Century America."

6 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

15. ORGANIZATIONS. "History of the Public School Society of New York."
16. FINANCE. "Methods of School Taxation in Pennsylvania, 1820-1880."
17. ARCHITECTURE. "The Evolution of the School Building in Illinois."
18. ADMINISTRATION. "The Rise of the State Superintendency of Schools."
19. LITERATURE. "A Century of Educational Periodicals in the United States."
20. INFLUENCE. "The Influence of Rousseau upon Pestalozzi."
21. REPUTATION. "The Reception of Horace Mann's Educational Ideas in Latin America."
22. COMPARISON. "A Comparative Study of Renaissance Theories of the Education of the Prince."
23. TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS. "A Study of the Treatment of Primitive Education in Textbooks in Educational History."

It should be noted that many of the illustrated titles represent combinations of types. Brief suggestions as to the selection of a topic and the delimitation of scope will be given in the next section.

PREPARING THE OUTLINE OF THE REPORT

The first step in deciding on a topic is to glance through the basic textbooks used in the student's course in the history of education. After considering the various criteria for the selection of a problem, he should begin to familiarize himself with the topic by preliminary readings in textbooks and reference works such as Paul Monroe's *A Cyclopedia of Education*. Note should be taken of the suggestions contained therein for further reading. This marks the first step in the compilation of a bibliography. An examination of the card catalogue under the major heading of the research project will yield additional items. It may be advisable in some cases to read a monograph or other specialized treatment of a subject similar to the one chosen by the student.

At this point the student will have notes covering the broad sweep of his subject and adequate background material. He should be in a position to judge whether the problem is too narrow or too broad.

Of course, as he continues his research, further modification may be necessary, depending upon the availability of source materials.

The student can now prepare an outline of his proposed study. This should include the full title of the research project, its major subdivisions, and a selected bibliography. The completed outline may be submitted to instructor, if he requires it, for his suggestions, and the returned outline serves as the student's working guide. It may also be used as a table of contents when the report is completed.

The following is a specimen outline for a course report:

TEACHER TRAINING IN THE UNITED STATES UNTIL 1840

I. General Historical and Educational Background

- A. Social and other factors responsible for desire for teacher training.
- B. The teacher in colonial America.
- C. European precedents and influences.

II. Early Teacher-Training Efforts

- A. Suggestions in magazines.
- B. Reports of travelers returned from Europe.
- C. Private normal schools.
- D. Classes in academies.
- E. Textbooks for teachers.

III. Agitation for Normal Schools in the 1830's

- A. Charles Brooks.
- B. James G. Carter.
- C. Horace Mann.

IV. The Opening of the First State Normal School

- A. Circumstances leading up to event.
- B. Administration and curriculum.

V. Results of Early Teacher Training in the United States

- A. Other state normal schools.
- B. Change in status of teacher.
- C. Changes in teacher training.

VI. Summary and Conclusions

- A. Recapitulation of main points.
- B. Evaluation of early efforts in terms of their contemporary setting.
- C. Relation to later developments.

8 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

- BRUBACHER, JOHN S. *A History of the Problems of Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1947.
- ELSBREE, WILLARD S. *The American Teacher*. New York: American Book Co., 1939.
- GORDY, J. P. *Rise and Growth of the Normal-School Idea in the United States*. U. S. Bureau of Education, Circular of Information No. 8. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1891.
- HARPER, CHARLES A. *A Century of Public Teacher Education*. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1939.
- KNIGHT, EDGAR W. *Education in the United States*. Second revised edition. Boston: Ginn, 1941.
- MANGUN, VERNON L. *The American Normal School*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1928.
- NORTON, ARTHUR O., editor. *The First State Normal School in America*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1926.

CHAPTER II

The Preliminary Search for Information

As stated earlier, textbooks, the library card catalogue, and encyclopedias usually yield the first bibliographical references. In this chapter the sources of information will be discussed and evaluated at greater length.

TEXTBOOKS

The textbooks in educational history cover a wide expanse of time, from primitive times, or at least from ancient Greece, up to the present. They frequently include educational developments in such countries as France, Germany, and Russia. Obviously, such a varied content cannot be considered authoritative in all respects; nevertheless, a careful reading of a topic serves as a helpful introduction to more intensive study. The bibliographies at the end of the chapter or at the end of the book may be suggestive for further reading as well as for the student's future bibliography.

Since students are not usually acquainted with the large number of available textbooks, the following annotated list will serve as a time-saving guide to titles in English and in other languages.

General History of Education

1. ADAMSON, JOHN W. *A Short History of Education*. Cambridge: University Press, 1919. From the early middle ages to the beginning of the twentieth century. Emphasizes the development of English education. Documented, frequently from primary sources. No bibliography.

10 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

2. BARTH, PAUL. *Die Geschichte der Erziehung in soziologischer und geistesgeschichtlicher Beleuchtung*. Leipzig: Reisland, 1911. The history of education from the viewpoint of sociology and the history of ideas.
3. BOYD, WILLIAM. *The History of Western Education*. Fourth edition. London: Black, 1947. Begins with Greek education. Twentieth-century ideas and events are not fully treated. Excellent chapter and final bibliographies.
4. BRUBACHER, JOHN S. *A History of the Problems of Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1947. A scholarly presentation of the historical development of many phases of education—e.g., curriculum, methodology, philosophy. A classified and critically annotated bibliography.
5. BUTTS, R. FREEMAN. *A Cultural History of Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1947. Especially strong in the relationship of the cultural, intellectual, social, political, and economic forces to education. Chronologically presented. Considerable attention to American education. Up-to-date bibliography.
6. COLE, PERCIVAL R. *A History of Educational Thought*. London: Oxford University Press, 1931. A series of historical essays on education from Greek times to the end of the nineteenth century. Some of the topics are rarely found in other texts. Numerous reading suggestions, but they lack complete data.
7. COMPAYRÉ, GABRIEL. *The History of Pedagogy*. Translated by W. H. Payne. Boston: Heath, 1885. An antiquated text, but still useful as an introduction to many aspects of French education.
8. EBY, FREDERICK, and ARROWOOD, CHARLES F. *The Development of Modern Education*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1934. Beginning with the Renaissance and the Reformation, this volume treats several topics quite exhaustively. The twentieth century is not particularly strong. Frequent use of original sources. Chapter bibliographies.
9. EBY, FREDERICK, and ARROWOOD, CHARLES F. *The History and Philosophy of Education: Ancient and Medieval*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1940. The most thorough text of its scope. Includes long chapters on primitive, Egyptian, and Hebrew education. Exceptional detail offered throughout. The chapter bibliographies are not well proofread.
10. GOOD, H. G. *A History of Western Education*. New York: Macmillan, 1947. A careful text which treats education up to the seventeenth century quite briefly. Especially useful for the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Up-to-date. Chapter bibliographies.
11. GRAVES, FRANK P. *A History of Education Before the Middle Ages* (New York: Macmillan, 1909); *A History of Education During the Middle Ages* (New York: Macmillan, 1910); *A History of Education in Modern Times* (New York: Macmillan, 1913). Somewhat out-of-date and subjective, but still helpful because of the detailed treatment of topics not found in most other texts.

12. GRAVES, FRANK P. *A Student's History of Education*. Revised edition. New York: Macmillan, 1936. A condensation of the three previous volumes. Contains a new chapter on recent tendencies in American education and elsewhere. The chapter bibliographies are annotated.
13. GUEX, FRANÇOIS. *Histoire de l'instruction et de l'éducation*. Lausanne: Alcan, 1906. A well-balanced, comprehensive, general text on the history of education. Includes education in the United States.
14. HEMAN, FRIEDRICH, and MOOG, WILLY. *Geschichte der neueren Pädagogik*. Sixth edition. Osterwieck/Harz: Zickfeldt, 1921. History of education from the Renaissance, with special emphasis on Germany.
15. KANE, W. *An Essay Toward a History of Education*. Chicago: Loyola University Press, 1935. A well-documented presentation from the Catholic viewpoint. Evaluative bibliographies at the end of each chapter.
16. KNIGHT, EDGAR W. *Twenty Centuries of Education*. Boston: Ginn, 1940. Emphasizes American education. Too brief on most topics. Includes much information on the educational history of Japan, Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland, Czechoslovakia, China, and Iraq, as well as countries frequently discussed in other textbooks. Well-annotated chapter bibliographies.
17. McCORMICK, PATRICK J., and CASSIDY, FRANK P. *History of Education*. Revised edition. Washington, D. C.: Catholic Education Press, 1946. Covers many ancient nations. Strong emphasis on the rise of Christian education. Detailed information on educational leaders of the Renaissance and Reformation. Weak on modern educational history. A good, well-documented source of elementary information on Catholic education. Chapter bibliographies.
18. MEYER, ADOLPH E. *Education in Modern Times*. New York: Avon, 1930. Chapters on Rousseau, Basedow, Pestalozzi, Herbart, Froebel, and Spencer. Historical development of modern education in Germany, France, England, United States, Italy, and Russia. Short, classified bibliography.
19. MONROE, PAUL. *A Text-Book in the History of Education*. New York: Macmillan, 1905. Still useful for its detailed explanations of educational movements. This text has influenced the writing of many others.
20. MOOG, WILLY. *Geschichte der Pädagogik*. 2 vols. Osterwieck: Zickfeldt, 1928-33. This is recognized as the outstanding German work on general educational history. The first volume, on ancient and medieval education, has not appeared. The second volume covers the period from the Renaissance until the end of the eighteenth century, while the final volume carries the story to the present. The author has evidently made use of primary sources in the preparation of the work,

12 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

although there are no footnotes. There is a preponderant emphasis on German educators. Bibliographies.

21. MOORE, ERNEST C. *The Story of Instruction: The Beginnings* (New York: Macmillan, 1936); *The Story of Instruction: The Church, the Renaissances, and the Reformations* (New York: Macmillan, 1938). The first volume deals with Greek and Roman education. Numerous quotations from original sources. Covers material not generally accessible to the student. No bibliographies, but sources are indicated in footnotes.

22. MULHERN, JAMES. *A History of Education*. New York: Ronald, 1946. Long chapters on primitive, Egyptian and Hindu education, and on the modern periods. Less satisfactory on most of the intervening periods. Chapter bibliographies.

23. PAROZ, JULES. *Histoire universelle de la pédagogie*. Eighth edition. Paris: Delagrave, 1883. A brief survey of education from primitive times to the nineteenth century. Contains a detailed section on the history of French education in the nineteenth century.

24. QUICK, ROBERT H. *Essays on Educational Reformers*. New York: Appleton, 1890. Discussions of post-Renaissance educators, many of whom receive scant treatment in the textbooks.

25. RAUMER, KARL VON. *Geschichte der Pädagogik*. 5 vols. Gütersloh: Bertelsmann, 1880-97. History of education from the Renaissance to the early nineteenth century, with special emphasis on Germany. Source materials are included.

26. REISNER, EDWARD H. *Historical Foundations of Modern Education* (New York: Macmillan, 1927); *Nationalism and Education since 1789* (New York: Macmillan, 1922). The first volume begins with Greece and concludes with the Renaissance. Annotated chapter bibliographies. The second volume is an exhaustive presentation of modern education in France, Prussia, England, and the United States. Brief chapter bibliographies.

27. RUSK, ROBERT R. *The Doctrines of the Great Educators*. London: Macmillan, 1926. Documented analyses of the ideas of educators from Plato to Montessori. No bibliography.

28. SCHERER, H. *Die Pädagogik vor Pestalozzi*. Leipzig: Brandstetter, 1897. A history of education from the Greek period to the end of the eighteenth century, with special reference to cultural and philosophical influences.

29. SCHMID, K. A., editor. *Geschichte der Erziehung*. 5 vols. in 8. Stuttgart: Cotta, 1884-1901. History of education from ancient times to the end of the nineteenth century.

30. SCHMIDT, KARL. *Geschichte der Pädagogik*. Third edition. 4 vols. Cöthen: Schettler, 1873-76. A detailed history of education from ancient times. Discusses China, India, Persia, Egypt, and Judea, as well as Greece, Rome, Christianity, etc. The fourth volume deals almost exclusively with German education.

31. Ulich, Robert. *History of Educational Thought*. New York: American Book Co., 1945. Based on original sources, this volume describes critically the philosophy of educational leaders from Plato to the present. Among the unusual inclusions are Plutarch, Franklin, Jefferson, and Emerson. A classified bibliography of over 50 pages.
32. Wilds, Elmer H. *The Foundations of Modern Education*. New edition. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1942. Elementary and well-organized. Much detail on education in the twentieth century. The chapter bibliographies are not particularly well selected.

History of American Education

33. Boone, Richard G. *Education in the United States*. New York: Appleton, 1889. Though out-of-date, it contains factual data and numerous leads for further research.
34. Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Public Education in the United States*. Revised edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1934. A very detailed account which stresses the development of educational administration and organization. The chapter bibliographies are helpfully annotated.
35. Curti, Merle. *The Social Ideas of American Educators*. New York: Scribner, 1935. From colonial times to the present. Deals primarily with the changes in educational philosophy as influenced by changing society. Educators include Booker T. Washington, William T. Harris, Bishop John L. Spalding, Francis W. Parker, G. Stanley Hall, William James, and Edward L. Thorndike, in addition to those often treated in the textbooks. Documentation from primary sources. A critical bibliographical essay.
36. Dexter, Edward G. *A History of Education in the United States*. New York: Macmillan, 1904. A very factualized account, organized on a topical basis. Contains chapters on professional education, libraries, education of the handicapped, and other special subjects. Chapter bibliographies.
37. Edwards, Newton, and Richey, Herman G. *The School in the American Social Order*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1947. A history of American education from colonial times up to the present. The pre-Civil War period is presented with a wealth of detail and against the social, economic, and political backdrop. The latter half of the book is overloaded with economic data. Chapter bibliographies.
38. Finney, Ross L. *The American Public School*. New York: Macmillan, 1921. History of American education from colonial times to the end of World War I, with special attention to the influence of European educators. Sparse documentation and no bibliography.
39. Knight, Edgar W. *Education in the United States*. Second revised edition. Boston: Ginn, 1941. The history of American education since the

14 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

seventeenth century, with a special stress on developments in the South. Excellently annotated chapter bibliographies.

40. MONROE, PAUL. *Founding of the American Public School System*. New York: Macmillan, 1940. The most thorough account of the history of American education from the colonial period until the end of the Civil War. Based on original documents which are cited in full in a source collection on microfilm (available in university and public libraries throughout the country). No bibliographies.

41. NOBLE, STUART G. *A History of American Education*. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1938. Emphasizes curriculum and methodology. Somewhat brief. Chapter bibliographies.

42. SLOSSON, EDWIN E. *The American Spirit in Education*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1921. An abbreviated account which offers material not generally included in other texts—Washington, DeWitt Clinton, Catholic education. Bibliographical essay at the end of the book.

Specialized Works and Monographs in Educational History

43. ABELSON, PAUL. *The Seven Liberal Arts*. Contributions to Education, No. 11. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1906. A study in the development of the medieval curriculum.

44. ADAMS, HERBERT B., editor. *Contributions to American Educational History*. Circulars of Information, U. S. Bureau of Education. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1887-1903. A series of monographs on the history of education, including special studies on the history of higher education, in the several states.

45. ADAMS, JAMES T. *Frontiers of American Culture*. New York: Scribner, 1944. An undocumented history of adult education in the United States. The selected bibliography is limited to recent history.

46. ADAMSON, JOHN W. *English Education: 1789-1902*. Cambridge: University Press, 1930. A thorough treatment by a noted specialist on this topic. Partially documented. No bibliography.

47. ADAMSON, JOHN W. *Pioneers of Modern Education, 1600-1700*. Cambridge: University Press, 1905. Scholarly documentation.

48. ADAMSON, JOHN W. "The Illiterate Anglo-Saxon." Cambridge: University Press, 1946. Documented essays on several phases of medieval and early modern education, chiefly in England.

49. ALTEKAR, A. S. *Education in Ancient India*. Third edition. Benares: Nand Kishore, 1948. A topical study which includes details as far down as 1800 A.D. Based on primary Hindu sources which are cited in the Sanskrit script.

50. ANDERSON, LEWIS F. *History of Manual and Industrial School Education*. New York: Appleton, 1926. A textbook treating a special phase of educational history.

51. AURNER, CLARENCE R. *History of Education in Iowa*. 5 vols. Iowa City: Iowa State Historical Society, 1914-1920. A very detailed account based on primary sources.
52. BAGSTER-COLLINS, E. W. "History of Modern Language Teaching in the United States," pp. 3-96, in W. W. Bagster-Collins *et al.*, *Studies in Modern Language Teaching*. (New York: Macmillan, 1930). A factual account of the development of the teaching of modern languages on various school levels. Documented chiefly from secondary sources.
53. BALDWIN, T. W. *William Shakspere's Small Latine & Lesse Greeke*. 2 vols. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1944. A scholarly study of English secondary education in the sixteenth century and of Shakespeare's own education. Exhaustively documented from primary sources.
54. BARNARD, H. C. *A Short History of English Education*. London: University of London Press, 1947. A partially documented study of the period, 1760-1944.
55. BARNARD, H. C. *The Little Schools of Port-Royal*. Cambridge: University Press, 1913. An excellent study of a phase of French education in the seventeenth century.
56. BATTERSBY, W. J. *De La Salle: A Pioneer of Modern Education*. London: Longmans, Green, 1949. A careful study of the life and works of the founder of the Brothers of the Christian Schools.
57. BEALE, HOWARD K. *A History of Freedom of Teaching in American Schools*. New York: Scribner, 1941. A unique and scholarly account.
58. BELL, SADIE. *The Church, the State, and Education in Virginia*. Lancaster, Pa.: Science Press, 1930. An exhaustive dissertation on the history of religious education in Virginia.
59. BLACKMAR, FRANK W. *History of Federal and State Aid to Higher Education in the United States*. U. S. Bureau of Education Circular of Information, 1890, No. 1, Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1890. Competent, but out of date.
60. BOLTON, FREDERICK E., and BIBB, THOMAS W. *History of Education in Washington*. U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1934, No. 9. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1935. A good history of public and private education.
61. BREWER, JOHN M., *et al.* *History of Vocational Guidance*. New York: Harper, 1942. From the nineteenth century to the present. Occasional documentation.
62. BREYMANN, H., and STEINMÜLLER, G. *Die neusprachliche Reform-Literatur von 1876-1909*. 4 vols. Leipzig: Deichert, 1895-1909. A classified, critically annotated list of works dealing with the "reform method" of language teaching of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.
63. BROWN, ELMER E. *The Making of Our Middle Schools*. New York: Longmans, Green, 1902. History of secondary education in the United States.

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64. BROWN, SAMUEL W. *The Secularization of American Education*. Contributions to Education, No. 49. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1912. A competent, widely-cited study of changes in the spirit of American education during the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.
65. BURNS, J. A. *The Catholic School System in the United States: Its Principles, Origin, and Establishment*. New York: Benziger, 1908. A well-documented history of Catholic education in the United States from the colonial period. Bibliography.
66. BUTLER, VERA M. *Education as Revealed by New England Newspapers Prior to 1850*. Ed.D. dissertation, Temple University, 1935. n.d., n.p. A thorough, analytical study.
67. BUTTS, R. FREEMAN. *The College Charts Its Course*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1939. History of higher education in the United States.
68. CALVET, JEAN. *L'Enfant dans la littérature française*. Vol. I, *Des Origines à 1870*; vol. II, *De 1870 à nos jours*. Paris: Lanore, 1930. A history of the treatment of the child in French literature until the twentieth century. A standard work.
69. CARLTON, FRANK T. *Economic Influences Upon Educational Progress in the United States, 1820-1850*. Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1908. A good study of the relation of social forces to education in age of change.
70. CARTWRIGHT, MORSE A. *Ten Years of Adult Education*. New York: Macmillan, 1935. Offers useful information on twentieth-century adult education in America. This is not a scientific history of the subject.
71. CHRISMAN, OSCAR. *The Historical Child*. Boston: Badger, 1920. Early education of children in Mexico, Peru, Egypt, India, China, Japan, Persia, Judea, Greece, Rome, Medieval Europe, and colonial America.
72. CLARKE, M. L. *Greek Studies in England, 1700-1830*. Cambridge: University Press, 1945. Documented essays on the development of Greek scholarship in England.
73. COMPAYRÉ, GABRIEL. *Histoire critique de l'éducation en France*. 2 vols. Paris: Hachette, 1884. A standard, if old, history of education in France.
74. CORCORAN, T. *Studies in the History of Classical Training, Irish and Continental: 1500-1700*. London: Longmans, Green, 1911. An historical study of the teaching of Latin.
75. COULTON, G. G. *Monastic Schools in the Middle Ages*. (Medieval Studies, No. X). London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co., 1913. A documented, "controversial" study. Reprinted from the *Contemporary Review*, June, 1913.
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77. CUROE, PHILIP R. V. *Educational Attitudes and Policies of Organized Labor in the United States*. Contributions to Education, No. 201. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. A thorough historical study which requires supplementation by more recent researches.
78. CURTI, MERLE, and CARSTENSEN, VERNON. *The University of Wisconsin: A History, 1848-1925*. 2 vols. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1949. One of the best examples of research in institutional history. Thoroughly documented from primary sources.
79. CURTIS, S. J. *History of Education in Great Britain*. London: University Tutorial Press, 1948. An up-to-date textbook covering the period from the middle ages to 1947. Partially annotated bibliography. Occasional documentation.
80. DALTON, VAN B. *The Genesis of Denial Education in the United States*. Cincinnati: The Author, 1946. Contains data and long quotations from sources. Poorly organized.
81. DE MONTMORENCY, J. E. G. *State Intervention in English Education*. Cambridge: University Press, 1902. The history of the relations of the government to education, with particular reference to legislation, before 1833.
82. D'IRSAY, STEPHEN. *Histoire des universités françaises et étrangères*. 2 vols. Paris: Picard, 1933-35. An excellent treatment of the history of universities from the middle ages until 1860. Includes a long, comprehensive bibliography and a useful index.
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86. DRAZIN, NATHAN. *History of Jewish Education from 515 B.C.E. to 220 C.E.* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1940. A dissertation based on Talmud sources which are given in the Hebrew or Aramaic and translated into English. The historiography is fair. The bibliography is chiefly made up of secondary sources.
87. EBY, FREDERICK. *The Development of Education in Texas*. New York: Macmillan, 1925. A thorough treatment by a recognized scholar.
88. ECKELBERRY, R. H. *The History of the Municipal University in the United States*. U. S. Office of Education; Bulletin 1932, No. 2. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1932. A study

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and analysis of the development of nine municipally controlled colleges. Based on primary sources.

89. EHM, ALBERT. *L'éducation nouvelle*. Thesis for Doctorat es Lettres, University of Paris. Sélestat: Alsatia, 1937. A history of progressive education in various countries. Good bibliography.

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91. ELSBREE, WILLARD S. *The American Teacher*. New York: American Book Co., 1939. A well-documented study of the history of the teaching profession in the United States.

92. ESCHER, ERWIN. *The Direct Method of Studying Foreign Languages: A Contribution to the History of Its Sources and Development*. Part I, unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Chicago, 1928; Part II, unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Chicago, 1919. A history of the study and teaching of foreign languages, with special attention to the medieval, and modern periods to the end of the nineteenth century. Contains a 50-page, critical bibliography. Abstracted in Algernon Coleman and Agnes Jacques, *An Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching: 1927-1932*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933, pp. 54-55.

93. FALCUCCI, CLÉMENT. *L'humanisme dans l'enseignement secondaire en France au XIXe siècle*. Toulouse: Privat, 1939. A detailed, scholarly study of French secondary education, with special reference to the curriculum, from the seventeenth to the beginning of the twentieth century.

94. FALK, HERBERT A. *Corporal Punishment*. Contributions to Education, No. 835. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. A study of the changing attitudes toward discipline in the schools.

95. FAY, JAY W. *American Psychology Before William James*. New Brunswick, N. J.: Rutgers University Press, 1939. A good source for the history of higher education, educational psychology, and the history of the teaching of philosophy and psychology in the United States. Liberal quotations from primary sources. A total of 47 pages of notes.

96. FISH, LOUIS J. *One Hundred Years of Examinations in Boston*. Dedham, Mass.: Transcript Press, 1941. Contains questions used in elementary schools during certain years in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

97. FISHMAN, ISIDORE. *The History of Jewish Education in Central Europe from the End of the Sixteenth to the End of the Eighteenth Century*. London: Goldston, 1944. Treats almost all phases of the subject. Based on primary sources.

98. FOREST, ILSE. *Preschool Education*. New York: Macmillan, 1927. A history of nursery and kindergarten education.
99. FOULQUIÉ, PAUL. *L'église et l'école*. Paris: Éditions Spes, 1947. A documented historical survey of the relationship of the church to education from ancient Roman times to the twentieth century, with special attention to the present. Includes a translation of the encyclical of Pope Pius XI.
100. FREEMAN, KENNETH J. *Schools of Hellas*. Third edition. London: Macmillan, 1922. An excellent monograph documented from primary Greek sources. Covers the period, 600-300 B.C.
101. GALT, HOWARD S. *The Development of Chinese Educational Theory*. Shanghai: Commercial Press, 1929. Covers the period up to 220 A.D. Based on Chinese sources.
102. GAMORAN, EMANUEL. *Changing Conceptions in Jewish Education*. New York: Macmillan, 1924. A study of the history of Jewish education in Russia and Poland during the nineteenth century. Bibliography and notes.
103. GERINI, G. B. *Gli scrittori pedagogici italiani del secolo decimo-quinto*. Torino: Paravia, 1896. A detailed analysis of the educational ideas of Pier Paolo Vergerio, Vittorino da Feltre, Maffeo Vegio, Enea Silvio Piccolomini, Francesco Filelfo, Leon Battista Alberti, Leonardo Bruni, and other fifteenth-century Italian educators.
104. GERINI, G. B. *Gli scrittori pedagogici italiani del secolo decimo-sesto*. Torino: Paravia, 1897. A detailed analysis of the educational ideas of Baldassare Castiglione and other sixteenth-century Italian educators.
105. GERINI, G. B. *Gli scrittori pedagogici italiani del secolo decimo-settino*. Torino: Paravia, 1900. A detailed analysis of the educational ideas of Tommaso Campanella and other seventeenth-century Italian educators.
106. GERINI, G. B. *Gli scrittori pedagogici italiani del secolo dici-mottavo*. Torino: Paravia, 1901. A detailed analysis of the educational ideas of Giambattista Vico and other eighteenth-century Italian educators.
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108. GÖBELBECKER, L. F. *Entwicklungsgeschichte des ersten Leseunterrichts von 1477 bis 1732*. Kempten: Nemnich, 1933. Descriptions of methods of teaching elementary reading. Contains many long quotations from primary sources. Deals chiefly with German education.
109. GORDY, J. P. *Rise and Growth of the Normal-School Idea in the United States*. U. S. Bureau of Education, Circular of Information No. 8. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1891. Long a

20 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

standard monograph on teacher education during the nineteenth century. Moderate documentation.

110. GRAHAM, HUGH. *The Early Irish Monastic Schools*. Dublin: Talbot, 1923. A detailed and documented monograph.

111. GRASBERGER, LORENZ. *Erziehung und Unterricht im klassischen Altherthum*. 3 vols. Würzburg: Stahel, 1864-81. A history of physical, musical, and military education in ancient Greece and Rome. An authoritative work based on primary sources.

112. GRAVES, FRANK P. *Great Educators of Three Centuries*. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Studies of ideas and achievements of educational leaders—Milton, Bacon, Ratke, Comenius, Locke, Francke, Rousseau, Basedow, Pestalozzi, Herbart, Froebel, Bell and Lancaster, Mann, and Spencer.

113. GRIMAUD, LOUIS. *Histoire de la liberté d'enseignement en France*. Paris: Rousseau, 1898. History of freedom in French education from the French Revolution until the end of the nineteenth century.

114. GRIMAUD, LOUIS. *Histoire de la liberté d'enseignement en France*. New edition. 2 vols. Grenoble: Arthaud, 1944. Longer and better documented than the first edition. Volume I treats the Old Regime in the eighteenth century and Volume II covers the period of the French Revolution. Exceptional bibliography.

115. GWYNN, AUBREY O. *Roman Education from Cicero to Quintilian*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1926. A useful study of educational ideas and practices.

116. HADDOW, ANNA. *Political Science in American Colleges and Universities, 1636-1900*. New York: Appleton-Century, 1939. A carefully documented doctoral dissertation.

117. HALL, ARTHUR J. *Religious Education in the Public Schools of the State and City of New York*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1914. An historical study beginning with the colonial period.

118. HANDSCHIN, CHARLES H. *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States*. U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1913, No. 3. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1913. A documented history of the teaching of French, German, Italian, and Spanish in American schools and universities. Excellently annotated bibliography of methodology. Lists of language textbooks.

119. HANS, NICHOLAS. *History of Russian Educational Policy (1701-1917)*. London: King, 1931. An undocumented study, apparently based on primary sources. Bibliography.

120. HANSEN, ALLEN O. *Liberalism and American Education in the Eighteenth Century*. New York: Macmillan, 1926. Detailed analyses of the plans for national education proposed by Benjamin Rush, Noah Webster, and others. Extensive bibliography of primary sources.

121. HAYES, CECIL B. *The American Lyceum*. U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1932, No. 12. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government

Printing Office, 1932. A documented study in the history of early adult education in America.

122. HINSDALE, BURKE A. "Notes on the History of Foreign Influence Upon Education in the United States," pp. 591-629, in *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1897-98* (vol. I, Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1899). A good reference for the preliminary study of foreign influences on American education.

123. HODGSON, GERALDINE E. *Primitive Christian Education*. Edinburgh: Clark, 1906. A standard survey.

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125. HOLTZ, ADRIAN H. *A Study of the Moral and Religious Elements in American Education Up to 1800*. Menasha, Wis., Banta, 1917. A brief study.

126. HUSSEY, JOAN M. *Church and Learning in the Byzantine Empire, 867-1185*. London: Oxford University Press, 1937. Covers an area not usually treated in the general works on educational history. Widespread use of primary sources. Useful bibliography.

127. JACKSON, SIDNEY L. *America's Struggle for Free Schools*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1941. An exceptionally documented monograph on education in New England and New York, 1827-42.

128. JAEGER, WERNER. *Paideia: The Ideals of Greek Culture*. (Translated by Gilbert Highet). 3 vols. New York: Oxford University Press, 1939-44. An outstanding study of Greek culture and education by an international authority.

129. JERNEGAN, MARCUS W. *Laboring and Dependent Classes in Colonial America, 1607-1783*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. A scholarly analysis of various aspects of the free education of poor children and apprentices in New England and the South.

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132. KANDEL, I. L. *Comparative Education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1933. Contains historical data on twentieth-century education, including backgrounds, in England, France, Germany, Italy, Russia, and the United States.

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133. KANDEL, I. L. *History of Secondary Education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1930. From Greek times onward. Special attention to France, Germany, England, and the United States.
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136. KEAY, FRANK E. *Ancient Indian Education*. London: Oxford University Press, 1918. A very useful monograph on this period.
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138. KEHR, C., editor. *Geschichte der Methodik des deutschen Volks-schulunterrichtes*. 4 vols. Cotha: Thienemann, 1877-82. Contains monographs on the history of religious education, social studies, the sciences, mathematics, handwriting, drawing, music, grammar, reading, domestic arts, and gymnastics in the German elementary schools. Index and source materials in Volume IV.
139. KIBRE, PEARL. *The Nations in the Mediaeval Universities*. Cambridge, Mass.: Mediaeval Academy of America, 1948. A scholarly contribution to the history of medieval higher education. Documented from primary sources. Extensive bibliography.
140. KIEFER, MONICA. *American Children Through Their Books, 1700-1835*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1948. Child life as depicted in children's books. Based on primary sources.
141. KILPATRICK, WILLIAM H. *The Dutch Schools of New Nether-land and Colonial New York*. U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1912, No. 12. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1912. An excellent scholarly treatise based on Dutch and English sources.
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143. KNIGHT, EDGAR W. *Public Education in the South*. Boston: Ginn, 1922. The standard work on the history of Southern education since colonial times.
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145. KNIGHT, EDGAR W. *The Influence of Reconstruction on Educa-tion in the South*. Contributions to Education, No. 60. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1913. The most thorough mono-graph on this topic.

146. KÖSTER, HERMANN L. *Geschichte der deutschen Jugendliteratur*. Third edition. Braunschweig: Westermann, 1920. A history of juvenile literature in Germany. Consists mainly of lists of books, authors, and artists.
147. LAURIE, S. S. *Historical Survey of Pre-Christian Education*. Second edition. London: Longmans, Green, 1904. Early education in Egypt, Judea, China, Indian, Persia, Greece, and Rome.
148. LAURIE, S. S. *Studies in the History of Educational Opinion from the Renaissance*. Cambridge: University Press, 1903. Essays on Vittorino da Feltre, Ascham, Comenius, Milton, Locke, Spencer, and others.
149. LAWSON, DOUGLAS E. *Curriculum Development in City School Systems*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. A history of the public-school curriculum in ten American cities, 1837-1936. Based on primary sources.
150. LÉAUD, A., and GLAY, E. *L'école primaire en France*. 2 vols. Paris: La Cité Française, 1934. A thoroughgoing history of the French elementary school.
151. LE DUC, THOMAS. *Piety and Intellect at Amherst College, 1865-1912*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1946. A history of various phases of college education, based on manuscript and other primary sources.
152. LEONARD, FRED E., and AFFLECK, GEORGE B. *A Guide to the History of Physical Education*. Third edition. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger, 1947. A detailed survey from the Greek period to the present, with emphasis on American physical education. Documentation and bibliography. Some of the chapters are superficial, while some are overloaded with material of dubious value.
153. LESER, HERMANN. *Das pädagogische Problem in der Geistesgeschichte der Neuzeit*. 2 vols. Munich: Oldenbourg, 1925-28. A thoroughgoing, competently documented history of educational ideas from the Renaissance to the Enlightenment.
154. LETOURNEAU, C. *L'évolution de l'éducation dans les diverses races humaines*. Paris: Vigot, 1898. A readable treatise on education in the animal kingdom, Melanesia, Africa, Polynesia: among the American Indians and Eskimos: in ancient Mexico, Peru, China, Egypt, Arabia, Chaldea, Israel, India, Persia, Greece, and Rome. Very brief treatment of medieval and modern education.
155. LIARD, L. *L'enseignement supérieur en France, 1789-1893*. 2 vols. Paris: Colin, 1888-94. A detailed account of a century of higher education in France.
156. LIMMER, RUDOLF. *Bildungszustände und Bildungsideen des 13. Jahrhunderts*. Munich: Oldenbourg. 1928. A study of elementary, apprenticeship, and adult religious education during the thirteenth century. Based on medieval Latin sources. Thoroughly documented.

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158. MALLET, CHARLES E. *A History of the University of Oxford.* 3 vols. London: Methuen, 1924-27. A comprehensive, scholarly study based on primary sources.
159. MARIQUE, PIERRE J. *History of Christian Education.* 3 vols. New York: Fordham University Press, 1924-32. A textbook covering the history of Catholic education.
160. MARROU, HENRI-IRÉNÉÉ. *Histoire de l'éducation dans l'antiquité.* Paris: Editions du Seuil, 1948. A history of Greek, Hellenistic, and Roman education during ancient times. Based almost exclusively on Latin and Greek sources. Excellent footnotes and bibliographical notes.
161. MARTIN, GEORGE H. *The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System.* New York: Appleton, 1894. Long a standard work on the subject. Requires supplementary research.
162. MATTHIAS, A. *Geschichte des deutschen Unterrichts.* Munich: Beck, 1907. The teaching of German in Germany from the sixteenth to the twentieth century.
163. McCALLISTER, W. J. *The Growth of Freedom in Education.* London: Constable, 1931. A study of the changing idea of freedom in the history of education from Plato until the present. Documented from primary sources. A 14-page, unannotated bibliography.
164. MEYER, ADOLPH E. *The Development of Education in the Twentieth Century.* Revised edition. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1949. Detailed historical analyses of Progressive education, international education, and other movements. Special attention to recent educational history of several foreign countries.
165. MILLER, BARNETTE. *The Palace School of Muhammad the Conqueror.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1941. Early history of the Turkish school founded in the late fourteenth century. Based on sources in Turkish, French, English, Italian, Spanish, German, and Latin.
166. MILLER, GEORGE F. *The Academy System of the State of New York.* Albany: Lyon, 1922. A competent contribution to the history of secondary education.
167. MONROE, WALTER S. *Development of Arithmetic as a School Subject.* U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1917, No. 10. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1917. From colonial times to the end of the nineteenth century in the United States. Useful, briefly annotated bibliography.

168. MONROE, WILL S. *History of the Pestalozzian Movement in the United States*. Syracuse, N. Y.: Bardeen, 1907. A detailed treatment of the influence of Pestalozzi's followers upon American education.
169. MOOKERJI, RADHA K. *Ancient Indian Education (Brahmanical and Buddhist)*. London: Macmillan, 1947. An exceptionally detailed analysis up to the seventh century A.D. Based on Sanskrit sources. Footnotes are rather scarce.
170. MORISON, SAMUEL E. *The Puritan Pronaos*. New York: New York University Press, 1936. Essays, based on primary sources, on education and culture in seventeenth-century New England.
171. MORISON, SAMUEL E. *Three Centuries of Harvard, 1636-1936*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1936. An excellent study in higher educational history. More thorough treatments of the early periods in Harvard's history are available in Morison's *The Founding of Harvard College* (1935), *Harvard College in the Seventeenth Century* (2 vols., 1936).
172. MULHERN, JAMES. *A History of Secondary Education in Pennsylvania*. Lancaster, Pa.: Science Press, 1933. An exceptionally thorough study based on primary sources.
173. MULLINGER, J. BASS. *The University of Cambridge*. 3 vols. Cambridge: University Press, 1873-1911. The most thorough history of this university. Considerable use of primary sources.
174. MURPHY, GARDNER. *An Historical Introduction to Modern Psychology*. Revised edition. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1949. Contains chapters on "Child Psychology," "The Measurement of Intelligence," etc. Useful for beginning research on phases of the history of educational psychology. See subject index under Education, Educational Psychology, Intelligence, Learning, etc.
175. MUTHESIUS, KARL. *Goethe und Pestalozzi*. Leipzig: Dürr, 1908. A meticulously scholarly monograph dealing with all phases of the relationship of Pestalozzi's educational ideas to Goethe's. Thoroughly documented from primary sources. Contains numerous examples of good historiographical techniques.
176. NARDI, NOAH. *Education in Palestine, 1920-1945*. Washington, D. C.: Zionist Organization of America, 1945. Includes Arab and Jewish education. Based on reports and other official sources.
177. NEUENDORFF, E. *Geschichte der neueren deutschen Leibesübungen vom 18. Jahrhundert bis zur Gegenwart*. 3 vols. Dresden: Limpert, 1930-32. A comprehensive history of German physical education since the eighteenth century.
178. NORWOOD, WILLIAM F. *Medical Education in the United States before the Civil War*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1944. A thoroughly documented study.

26 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

179. O'BOYLE, JAMES. *The Irish Colleges on the Continent*. Dublin: Browne and Nolan, 1935. A study, based on primary sources, of the Irish influence in medieval European education.
180. O'CONNOR, MICHAEL J. L. *Origins of Academic Economics in the United States*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1944. A well-documented historical analysis covering the nineteenth century. Based on primary sources. Excellent bibliographies.
181. PAETOW, LOUIS J. *The Arts Course in Medieval Universities with Special Reference to Grammar and Rhetoric*. University of Illinois, University Studies. Urbana: University Press, 1910. A study of the development of the curriculum. Widespread use of primary sources.
182. PANGBURN, JESSIE M. *The Evolution of the American Teachers College*. Contributions to Education, No. 500. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. A fairly representative survey.
183. PARKER, SAMUEL C. *A Textbook in the History of Modern Elementary Education*. Boston: Ginn, 1912. Short review of elementary education before the Reformation followed by a more detailed treatment of the later periods. Special stress on the ideas, work, and influence of Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Froebel.
184. PATWARDHAN, C. N. *History of Education in Medieval India*. Bombay: The Author, 1939. Covers the period, 600-1200 A.D. Widespread use of Hindu sources.
185. PAULSEN, FRIEDRICH. *Geschichte des gelehrteten Unterrichts*. 2 vols. Third edition. Leipzig: Veit, 1919-21. An excellent history of higher education in Germany since the middle ages.
186. PEIXOTTO, AFRANIO. *Noções de história da educação*. Third edition. São Paulo: Companhia Editora Nacional, 1942. A brief history of education from the earliest times to the present. Written in Portuguese.
187. PERRY, CHARLES M. *Henry Philip Tappan: Philosopher and University President*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1933. Contains a long, documented account of the opposition to Tappan's attempt to "Prussianize" the University of Michigan.
188. PIERCE, PAUL R. *The Origin and Development of the Public School Principalship*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. A useful monograph on the history of school administration and supervision.
189. PIERSON, MARY B. *Graduate Work in the South*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1947. A history of graduate education. Documentation is fair.
190. RASHDALL, HASTINGS. *The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages*. New edition, edited by F. M. Powicke and A. B. Emden. 3 vols. New York: Oxford University Press, 1936. Widely recognized as the most thorough, scholarly work of its kind.

191. RAYMONT, T. *A History of Education of Young Children*. London: Longmans, Green, 1937. Begins with the seventeenth century.
192. REEDER, RUDOLPH R. *The Historical Development of School Readers and Methods in Teaching Reading*. New York: Macmillan, 1900. Good for the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.
193. REISNER, EDWARD H. *The Evolution of the Common School*. New York: Macmillan, 1930. The history of elementary education from the Middle Ages. Emphasizes the period since the eighteenth century.
194. REYNOLDS, MYRA. *The Learned Lady in England: 1650-1760*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1920. A competent study of this subject. Documentation from primary sources. Long, unannotated bibliography.
195. RICE, EMMETT A. *A Brief History of Physical Education*. Revised edition. New York: Barnes, 1929. An extremely elementary treatment of the subject from primitive times to the present. Informative on the American period. The bibliographies are good, but little use of them seems to have been made in the text.
196. RICH, ARTHUR L. *Lowell Mason*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1946. A study, based on primary sources, which is helpful for research on the history of the teaching of music in the United States. Very long bibliography.
197. RITTER, GERHARD. *Die Heidelberger Universität*. Vol. I. Heidelberg: Winter, 1936. A carefully documented, scholarly study of the history of the University of Heidelberg from 1386 to 1508. An excellent source for the history of higher education in the middle ages.
198. ROORBACH, AGNEW O. *The Development of Social Studies in American Secondary Education before 1861*. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: The Author, 1937. A detailed, carefully documented study followed by a bibliography of textbooks in history, geography, civics, and political economy used in the schools or published in the United States before the Civil War. Also an extensive bibliography on the history of the social studies.
199. ROSS, EARLE D. *Democracy's College*. Ames: Iowa State College Press, 1942. An account of the early decades of the land-grant college movement following the Morrill Act of 1862. Thoroughly documented from primary sources. Excellent bibliography.
200. RUSK, ROBERT R. *A History of Infant Education*. London: University of London Press, 1933. From Comenius to Dewey. Based on original sources.
201. RYAN, W. CARSON. *Studies in Early Graduate Education*. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1939. The history of graduate education during the late nineteenth century at the Johns Hopkins and the Clark University, and at the University of Chicago. Documentation. Annotated bibliography.

28 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

202. SALMON, DAVID, and HINDSHAW, WINIFRED. *Infant Schools: Their History and Theory*. London: Longmans, Green, 1904. Concerned with the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Few footnotes.
203. SANDYS, JOHN E. *A History of Classical Scholarship*. 3 vols. Third edition. Cambridge: University Press, 1908-21. A famous history of learning from Greek times to nineteenth-century Europe and America. A valuable reference aid in educational history.
204. SCHARFSTEIN, ZEVI. *Toledot ha-hinuch b'Yisrael b'dorot ha-aharonim*. 3 vols. New York: Ogen, 1945-49. History of Jewish education in Europe, the United States, Canada, and South Africa, and elsewhere, since the eighteenth century. The text is in Hebrew, but many of the footnotes refer to sources in European languages.
205. SCHNEIDER, FRIEDRICH. *Geltung und Einfluss der deutschen Pädagogik im Ausland*. Munich: Oldenbourg, 1943. A detailed, documented history of the influence of German educators in foreign countries. Rather biased.
206. SCHRÖTELER, JOSEF, editor. *Die Pädagogik der nichtchristlichen Kulturvölker*. Munich: Kösel and Pustet, 1934. The history of ancient education—primitive peoples, India, China, Japan, Korea, Babylonia, Assyria, Israel, Islam, Teutonic tribes, Greece, and Rome.
207. SCHWENDENER, NORMA. *A History of Physical Education in the United States*. New York: Barnes, 1942. A documented, detailed treatment based, to a large extent, upon secondary sources.
208. SEYBOLT, ROBERT F. *Apprenticeship and Apprenticeship Education in Colonial New England and New York*. Contributions to Education, No. 85. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1917. A careful, scholarly study.
209. SHERA, JESSE H. *Foundations of the Public Library*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1949. A history of the public-library movement in New England, 1629-1855. Documented from primary sources.
210. SHERRILL, LEWIS J. *The Rise of Christian Education*. New York: Macmillan, 1944. A competent, detailed examination, with frequent documentation from primary sources, of Jewish religious education, early Christian education, and medieval church schools.
211. SHORES, LOUIS. *Origins of the American College Library, 1638-1800*. Contributions to Education, No. 134. Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1934. A well-documented historical dissertation.
212. SMITH, SHERMAN M. *The Relation of the State to Religious Education in Massachusetts*. Syracuse, N. Y.: Syracuse University Book Store, 1926. Detailed and documented.
213. STEWART, ISABEL M. *The Education of Nurses*. New York: Macmillan, 1943. A textbook on the history of nursing education since 1860. An introductory chapter on developments prior to this date.

214. STIMSON, RUFUS W., and LATHROP, FRANK W., compilers. *History of Agricultural Education of Less than College Grade in the United States*. U. S. Office of Education, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 217. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1942. History of agricultural education in the several states, as well as chapters on the history of federal administration of, and trends in, vocational agriculture. Bibliography of manuscript reports.
215. STOKER, SPENCER. *The Schools and International Understanding*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1933. The introduction sketches the development of international education from ancient times to the end of World War I. The rest of this well-documented volume deals with an analysis of international education from 1919 to 1930. Excellent bibliography.
216. STOUT, JOHN E. *The Development of High-School Curricula in the North Central States from 1860 to 1918*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1921. A valuable monograph for the history of secondary education in America. Widespread use of primary materials.
217. SUTTON, ALBERT A. *Education for Journalism in the United States from Its Beginning to 1940*. Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University, 1945. A weakly documented sketch.
218. SUZZALLO, HENRY. *The Rise of Local School Supervision in Massachusetts*. Contributions to Education, No. 3. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1906. Describes the history of the local school committee, 1635-1827.
219. SWIFT, FLETCHER H. *Federal and State Policies in Public School Finance in the United States*. Boston: Ginn, 1931. A thorough examination of the history of financing American public education.
220. SWIFT, FLETCHER H. *A History of Public Permanent Common School Funds in the United States, 1795-1905*. New York: Holt, 1911. A standard, scholarly treatment.
221. TEWKSBURY, DONALD G. *The Founding of American Colleges and Universities before the Civil War*. Contributions to Education, No. 543. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. An able study based on primary sources.
222. THOMPSON, JAMES W. *Ancient Libraries*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1940. A brief, scholarly study with ample documentation.
223. THOMPSON, JAMES W. *The Literacy of the Laity in the Middle Ages*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1939. Based on primary sources.
224. THOMPSON, JAMES W. *The Medieval Library*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. A lengthy, well-documented study by an outstanding medievalist. Specialized articles by other writers. For a critical review, see Blanche B. Boyer, "The Medieval Library," *Library Quarterly*, X, 1940, pp. 396-413.

225. THURSFIELD, RICHARD E. *Henry Barnard's "American Journal of Education."* Baltimore: John Hopkins Press, 1945. A fully documented study of all phases of the development of the most important American educational periodical of the nineteenth century. Based on manuscript and printed primary sources. A first-rate research monograph.
226. THWING, CHARLES F. *A History of Higher Education in America.* New York: Appleton, 1906. A detailed survey, but out-of-date. Occasional footnotes.
227. TUER, ANDREW W. *History of the Horn Book.* London: Leadenhall, 1897. The most thorough survey of English horn books, battledores, and other devices used in learning how to read. Numerous facsimiles of all types of horn books.
228. UNDERHILL, ORRA E. *The Origins and Development of Elementary-School Science.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman, 1941. An historical study from the eighteenth century to the present. Documentation and bibliography.
229. VANDEWALKER, NINA C. *The Kindergarten in American Education.* New York: Macmillan, 1908. A history of the kindergarten in America. Useful, but requires supplementation by more recent studies.
230. VAN SCHAGEN, K. H. *Le Rôle de l'éducation physique dans le développement de la personnalité.* Paris: Alcan, n.d. A good study of the relationship of the history of physical education to general educational history. Includes the primitives, Egypt, Israel, China, India, Greece and Rome, the middle ages, Renaissance, etc. Emphasis is on the modern period. Documentation from primary sources. Useful bibliography in French, English, German, and Dutch.
231. VIERECK, L. *Zwei Jahrhunderte deutschen Unterrichts in den Vereinigten Staaten.* Braunschweig: Vieweg, 1903. History of the teaching of German in the United States from the early eighteenth to the early twentieth century.
232. WAITE, FREDERICK C. *The Story of a Country Medical College.* Montpelier: Vermont Historical Society, 1945. An excellent monograph dealing with the history of the Vermont Medical College at Woodstock, 1827-56. Primary sources were used solely.
233. WALDEN, JOHN W. H. *The Universities of Ancient Greece.* New York: Scribner, 1909. A standard history of Greek higher education.
234. WATSON, FOSTER. *The Beginnings of the Teaching of Modern Subjects in England.* London: Pitman, 1909. A scholarly account of the history of the teaching of English, history, geography, drawing, science, mathematics, and modern languages in England during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Documented from primary sources. No bibliography.
235. WATSON, FOSTER. *The English Grammar Schools to 1660: Their Curriculum and Practice.* Cambridge: University Press, 1908. A very

detailed study, with special attention to the teaching of Latin. Contains lists of contemporary textbooks.

236. WISE, JOHN E. *The Nature of the Liberal Arts*. Milwaukee, Wis.: Bruce, 1946. A history of the idea of liberal-arts education from Plato to Cardinal Newman. Documentation from primary sources.

237. WICKERSHAM, JAMES P. *A History of Education in Pennsylvania*. Lancaster, Pa.: Inquirer Publishing Co., 1886. Although out of date, this book is still considered the standard work on the subject and one of the best state histories.

238. WILKINS, A. S. *Roman Education*. Cambridge: University Press, 1905. A useful, partially documented survey of the history of education in Rome. The bibliography contains foreign-language works almost exclusively.

239. WILLIAMS, E. I. F. *Horace Mann: Educational Statesman*. New York: Macmillan, 1937. A biographical study with virtually no documentation. A useful bibliographical essay.

240. WILLS, ELBERT V. *The Growth of American Higher Education*. Philadelphia: Dorrance, 1936. A very short survey, topically organized.

241. WILSON, IRMA. *Mexico: A Century of Educational Thought*. New York: Hispanic Institute in the United States, 1941. A thoroughgoing, systematic account based exclusively on primary materials. Bibliography of 27 pages is unannotated.

242. WITTLIN, ALMA S. *The Museum: Its History and Its Task in Education*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1949. A documented history of the museum as an agency of adult education.

243. WOODSON, CARTER G. *The Education of the Negro prior to 1861*. New York: Putnam, 1915. An excellent account of this subject.

244. WOODWARD, W. H. *Studies in Education during the Age of the Renaissance*. Cambridge: University Press, 1906. Scholarly essays by an expert in the field.

245. WOODY, THOMAS. *A History of Women's Education in the United States*. 2 vols. Lancaster, Pa.: Science Press, 1929. An exhaustively documented study. This is not likely to be superseded for a long time to come.

246. WOODY, THOMAS. *Early Quaker Education in Pennsylvania*. Contributions to Education, No. 105. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1920. A careful study, based on manuscript and primary printed sources, of Quaker education during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

247. WOODY, THOMAS. "Historical Sketch of Activism," pp. 9-43, in Lois C. Mossman, chairman, *The Activity Movement* (Part II, the Thirty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Co., 1934). An excellent, brief account of the development of the activity concept in education. Based chiefly on primary sources.

248. WOODY, THOMAS. *Life and Education in Early Societies*. New York: Macmillan, 1949. The most scholarly and thoroughgoing history of physical education in ancient times. Rich documentation from primary source materials. Scope includes primitive, Egyptian, Babylonian, Hebrew, Chinese, Hindu, Iranian, Cretan, Greek, and Roman education. Special attention is given to the relation of mental to physical education. Unannotated bibliography of 33 pages.

249. WÜLLENWEBER, FRITZ. *Altgermanische Erziehung*. Hamburg: Hanseatischer Verlag, 1935. A history of ancient Germanic (Nordic) education. Based on the sagas.

ENCYCLOPEDIAS

Good historical articles on specialized phases of education are available in such encyclopedias as the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, *Encyclopedia Americana*, *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences* (see index under "Education"), *Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics*, *Catholic Encyclopedia*, *Jewish Encyclopedia*, and others. Some historical data on recent developments may be found in Walter S. Monroe, editor, *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York: Macmillan, 1941—revised edition in press); Harry N. Rivlin and Herbert Schueler, editors, *Encyclopedia of Modern Education* (New York: Philosophical Library, 1943). To keep abreast of current events in education the student should consult the yearbooks of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* and similar publications. Of special interest is the lengthy survey on education in the supplement to the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, "Ten Eventful Years" (1937-1946). Especially useful to the student who reads foreign languages are Wilhelm Rein, editor, *Encyklopädisches Handbuch der Pädagogik*; Ferdinand Buisson, editor, *Dictionnaire de Pédagogie et d'Instruction Primaire* and *Nouveau Dictionnaire de Pédagogie et d'Instruction Primaire*; and similar encyclopedias in Italian, Spanish, and other languages. Older encyclopedias, chiefly of historical interest and of contemporary value, are Sonnenschein's *Cyclopedia of Education* (London: Sonnenschein, 1889, 1906); and Henry Kiddle and Alexander J. Schem, editors, *The Cyclopedia of Education* (New York: Steiger, 1876).

The four volumes of Foster Watson, editor, *The Encyclopedia and*

Dictionary of Education (London: Pitman, 1921-22) contain historical articles, but are chiefly helpful in British educational history. Students will also find in other articles much descriptive data which may now be considered of historical significance. A convenient method of locating historical articles is to consult the Classified Index at the end of Volume IV under "History of Education" and related headings.

By far the best encyclopedia for purposes of research in educational history, in the English language at least, is Paul Monroe, editor, *A Cyclopedia of Education* (New York: Macmillan, 1911-13, five volumes). The articles are rather long and detailed, and are followed by bibliographical references. To find his way quickly through this vast treasury of information on educational history, the student should consult the Analytical Indexes in Volume V, particularly pp. 855-863, 866, 879, 881-884, 887-892. Although some of the articles are decidedly outdated, they still offer adequate data on the periods covered by them. Similarly, the articles dealing with earlier historical events and ideas lack the results of recent scholarship. However, they are still eminently valuable not only for the beginner, but for students of experience. Items of historical information, as well as definitions of historical and contemporary terms in American and foreign education, are found in Carter V. Good, editor, *Dictionary of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1945). This reference work contains no bibliographies.

THE LIBRARY CARD CATALOGUE

Although nearly everyone is familiar with the arrangement of the library card catalogue—by author, title, and subject—students frequently fail to make full use of its resources. It is easy, of course, to check the catalogue for references on Horace Mann by looking under *Mann*. However, the location of publications on secondary education is more complicated. The student must examine, therefore, all cross-references indicated on the book cards themselves or on the guide cards which are inserted by librarians to facilitate reference work.

Furthermore, he should exercise his imagination and ingenuity in determining under whatever other subject headings he is likely to find additional titles. Thus, books and pamphlets on the history of secondary education may be found under *Education, Secondary; High School; Academy; Adolescence; England, Education, Secondary*; and the like.

If the student has access to the open shelves of the library, he can save time by going directly to the books labeled 370.9 (Dewey system) or to those with call numbers preceded by LA (Library of Congress system). These are the major designations for books on the history of education. Increasing familiarity with the library will reveal other pertinent classifications.

DISSERTATIONS

A likely source of good references for a research report are masters' theses and doctors' dissertations. These studies usually have long bibliographies which are sometimes annotated. Suggestions as to the organization or treatment of a topic may also be obtained from such writings. In this class also belong the specialized studies known as monographs, which are prepared by scholars after considerable time spent in investigating their areas of research.

Very many dissertations remain unpublished and must be consulted in the library of the university where they have been accepted in fulfillment of degree requirements. Students writing research reports may do well to examine such dissertations in their own and neighboring institutions. Those doing research on the doctoral or even masters' level may borrow dissertations through the inter-library loan system. Probably the most thorough collection of thesis titles, published and unpublished, is the *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education*, issued for the years 1926-1940 by the United States Office of Education. Most entries are descriptively annotated. Writings on the history of education may be located under the captions, "Education—History," "Educational biography," "Current educational conditions," and "Education—Theories and principles." Additional

titles may be obtained by referring to the subject index under "Education-history." A special list of doctoral theses deposited in the U. S. Office of Education before 1934 is available in Ruth A. Gray's *Doctor's Theses in Education*. Another helpful source is the annual compilation, *Doctoral Dissertations Accepted by American Universities* (New York: Wilson, 1934 to date). For listings of dissertations arranged by subject, the student should consult Thomas R. Palfrey and Henry E. Coleman, Jr., *Guide to Bibliographies of Theses* (second edition, Chicago, American Library Association, 1940) under the headings of "Education" and "History."

Some students may wish to become familiar with the topics of dissertations in progress in educational history. The best source for this purpose is Carter V. Good's "Doctors' Dissertations Under Way in Education 1948-1949," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXX, February, 1949, pp. 198-220. This is the nineteenth annual list, most of the earlier editions of which appeared in the *Journal of Educational Research*. In all probability Good's future lists will continue to appear in the *Phi Delta Kappan*. Unfortunately, the dissertations in progress are not classified or indexed by subject. Additional titles of interest to students of educational history are included in the "List of Doctoral Dissertations Now in Progress at Universities in the United States," now issued by the American Historical Association. Although the compilation is classified, there is no special entry labeled "educational history," and it is therefore necessary to check the subheading "social" under the various geographical divisions.

INDEXES

Current and earlier articles on limited phases of educational history are available in the *Education Index* (New York: Wilson, since 1929) under "Education—History" and other appropriate classifications. Additional references, particularly to scholarly and foreign periodicals not included in the *Education Index*, may be found in the *International Index to Periodicals* (from 1916; as the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature Supplement*, from 1907 to 1919). Educational

articles in general magazines are indexed in the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* (since 1900) and the *Annual Magazine Subject Index* (since 1907). Earlier references may be located under "Education," "Pedagogy," and "Teaching," in *Poole's Index to Periodical Literature* (1802-1906) and in the *Nineteenth Century Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* (1890-99). Catholic educational articles are listed in the *Catholic Periodical Index* (1930 to date). In addition, specialized articles on education may be discovered in the *Agriculture Index*, *Art Index*, *Chipman's Index to Legal Periodical Literature*, *Industrial Arts Index*, *Index to Legal Periodicals*, *Occupational Index*, *Psychological Abstracts*, *Psychological Index*, *Public Affairs Information Service Bulletin*, *Social Science Abstracts*, and *State Law Index*. Annotated lists of articles, many of them dealing with educational history, have been published from 1936 to 1944 in *Education Abstracts*. *The Loyola Educational Digest* (1924-?) also contains such lists of articles, as well as annotations of books which interest the educational historian. Advanced students desiring to become acquainted with other specialized indexes should consult Norma O. Ireland's *An Index to Indexes* (Boston: Faxon, 1942), especially under "Education" and related entries.

Two indexes deserve particular attention:

U. S. Bureau of Education *Analytical Index to Barnard's American Journal of Education*. (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1892). This is the indispensable key to the vast amount of material published in the 31 volumes (1855-1881) edited by Henry Barnard. Very valuable, not only for American educational history, but for foreign education as well.

Educational Review: Analytical Index to Volumes 1-25, January, 1891, to May, 1903. Edited by C. Nelson, Easton, Pa.: Educational Review Publishing Co., 1904. *Educational Review: Analytical Index to Volumes 26-50, June, 1903, to December, 1915*. Edited by Nicholas Murray Butler. Easton, Pa.: Educational Review Publishing Co., 1916. Not as important as the Barnard index, but helpful in finding discussions of contemporary events in education.

Of significance to those who read foreign languages are the following:

Bulletin bibliographique de documentation internationale contemporaine (since 1926). An index of books and periodicals dealing with international intercourse. The English title is *Bibliographical Bulletin on International Affairs*.

Bibliographie der deutschen Zeitschriftenliteratur (since 1870). A subject index to German periodicals. See under "Erziehung," "Pädagogik," etc.

Bibliographie der fremdsprachigen Zeitschriftenliteratur (since 1911, except for 1920-25). An index to periodical articles in English, French, Italian, and additional languages other than German. See under "Erziehung" and the various cross-references. This index does not really require a knowledge of German. The key number in bold-face type under each entry refers to a list of periodicals, many of them in English, at the beginning of each volume.

Bibliographie der Staats- und Wirtschaftswissenschaften (previously known as *Bibliographie der Sozialwissenschaften*). Published since 1905. An international periodical index devoted to the social sciences. See section IX, 4, "Kulturpolitik," "Kirche," "Schule," "Presse."

For short descriptions of some of the reference tools mentioned in this section, see Isadore G. Mudge, editor, *Guide to Reference Books* (sixth edition, Chicago, American Library Association, 1936), pp. 28-33 (dissertations) and pp. 6-17 (periodical indexes). Reference works published from 1935 to 1946 are described by Constance M. Winchell in the four supplements to Miss Mudge's guide. Other suggestions for searching for source materials may be obtained in Carter Alexander's *How to Locate Educational Information and Data* (second edition, New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941).

The student should take care to copy, preferably on individual 3 x 5 cards, the following bibliographical data: full name of author or editor; complete title of book, pamphlet or article; title of periodical, yearbook, or collection; edition (if other than the first); volume (if more than one); date of copyright; place of publication; name of publisher; pages consulted or quoted; library call number. Most of this information is necessary for the footnotes and for the bibliography.

CHAPTER III

The Search for Source Materials

The preparation of a research report in educational history means more than deriving some factual data from approved sources. The student must also be able to place his information within the context of the general history of his period and to offer a satisfying interpretation of the relationship. This chapter, accordingly, will treat the variety of reference works which will enable the student to attain the fullest understanding of his research problem.

A visit to a reference library will reveal to the student a number of guides to the wealth of material available for consultation. It is a good practice to familiarize oneself with some of these guides in order to save time otherwise spent in searching aimlessly through countless volumes. The most thorough, even if not fully annotated, key to the reference library is Isadore G. Mudge's *Guide to Reference Books* (sixth edition, Chicago, American Library Association, 1936), to which must be added the four supplements (1935-1946) by Constance M. Winchell. Longer and superior descriptions of a smaller number of reference volumes are provided in Louis Shores' *Basic Reference Books* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1939). Very helpful, even if considerably shorter, guides include Mary N. Barton's *Reference Books* (Baltimore, Md.: Enoch Pratt Free Library, 1947), Louis Kaplan's *Research Materials in the Social Sciences* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1939), and Nelson W. McCombs' *A List of Reference Books* (revised edition, New York, New York University, 1935). In the field of education the most thorough description of reference books is Carter Alexander's *How*

to Locate Educational Information and Data (second edition, New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941). Less inclusive are Emil Greenberg's *A Guide to Research Sources in Education* (New York: New York University Bookstore, 1941), Margaret H. Thorpe's *Where Can I Find?* (Syracuse, N. Y.: The Author, Syracuse University, 1941), and Roy C. Bryan's *Keys to Professional Information for Teachers* (Kalamazoo: Western Michigan College of Education, 1945).

A number of general reference works were discussed in Chapter II. Here attention will be directed to certain books which have proved their worth in historical research.

GENERAL REFERENCE WORKS

Historical Bibliographies

Many reference libraries possess some bibliographies of bibliographies which contain numerous items of importance to the educational historian. Among these may be mentioned Georg Schneider's *Handbuch der Bibliographie*, Theodore Besterman's *A World Bibliography of Bibliographies*, William P. Courtney's *Register of National Bibliography* (British), *Bibliographic Index* (1938 to date), *Internationale Bibliographie des Buch—und Bibliotheksweisen*, *Internationaler Jahresbericht der Bibliographie*, *Index Bibliographicus*, Henri Stein's *Manuel de bibliographie général*, and others.

Titles of publications issued in America during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries have been collected in Charles Evans' *American Bibliography*. Volumes published late in the nineteenth century are listed in the *American Catalogue of Books, 1876-1910*. More recent books may be found in the *United States Catalog* and the *Cumulative Book Index*. Other lists, which contain author entries only, include Joseph Sabin's *Dictionary of Books Relating to America* and Orville Roorbach's *Bibliotheca Americana*. Additional listings may be found in Mudge and similar guides.

Bibliographical sources more or less exclusively concerned with history are the *International Bibliography of Historical Sciences*, the

London Bibliography of the Social Sciences, and Grandin's *Bibliographie générale des sciences juridiques et sociales*.

The following are of direct significance to research in educational history:

250. BATESON, F. W., editor. *Cambridge Bibliography of English Literature*. 4 vols. New York: Macmillan, 1941. An excellent source of references on the history of British education. Vol. I, pp. 124-127, lists manuscripts and books for the period, 600-1500; pp. 364-80, for 1500-1600; Vol. II, pp. 107-32, for 1660-1800; Vol. II, pp. 106-143, 844-45, for the nineteenth century. Consult the index (Vol. IV) under "Education," "School-Books," and "Schools."

251. BLACK, GEORGE F. *A List of Works Relating to Scotland*. New York: New York Public Library, 1916. Pp. 694-710 deal with works on the history of education in Scotland.

252. CASE, S. J., editor. *A Bibliographical Guide to the History of Christianity*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. Pp. 47-48, 81-82, 188-190, etc., contain references on the history of Christian education.

253. CHANNING, EDWARD, HART, ALBERT B., and TURNER, FREDERICK J. *Guide to the Study and Reading of American History*. Revised edition. Boston: Ginn, 1912. See index under "Colleges," "Education," and "Teaching."

254. DAVIES, GODFREY, editor. *Bibliography of British History: Stuart Period, 1603-1714*. Oxford: Clarendon, 1928. Brief annotations of sources and other writings on the history of education, pp. 218-25.

255. DUTCHER, GEORGE M. *et al.*, editors. *A Guide to Historical Literature*. New York: Macmillan, 1931. The most comprehensive bibliography of its kind. Excellently annotated. References to publications in the history of education are under "Cultural History: Education, Thought, Philosophy" and are identified by key numbers, 641 and 642, in each section.

256. EDWARDS, EVERETT E. *A Bibliography of the History of Agriculture in the United States*. U. S. Department of Agriculture, Miscellaneous Publication No. 84. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930. Pp. 149, 150, and 209-214 contain references on the history of agricultural education.

257. GREENE, EVARTS B. and MORRIS, RICHARD B. *A Guide to the Principal Sources for Early American History (1600-1800) in the City of New York*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1929. A good source of materials on the educational history of New York City.

258. GRIFFIN, GRACE G. *et al.* *Writings on American History*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1942. Annual since 1906. See index under "Education." Briefly annotated. A valuable bibliographical source on American educational history.

259. GROSE, CLYDE L. *A Select Bibliography of British History, 1660-1760*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. 110-20 contain titles in the history of British education.
260. HAERING, HERMANN, editor. *Dahlmann-Waitz: Quellenkunde der deutschen Geschichte*. Ninth edition. Leipzig: Koehler, 1931. Includes references on educational history compiled by Benno Böhm under the caption, "Geschichte der Erziehung, des Schulwesens und der Wissenschaften," pp. 206-14, 358, 457, 461, 576-7, 580-3, 700-1, 703-4, 784, 798-800, 915, 929-30, 985, 989-90.
261. HANKE, LEWIS, and BURGIN, MIRON, editors. *Handbook of Latin American Studies*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1936-to date. See "Education." Many annotated references on the educational history of Latin America. The best source of current publications in this field.
262. LARNED, JOSEPHUS N., editor. *The Literature of American History*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1902. Long, evaluative annotations. See index under "Colleges," "Education," "Schools," and "Universities."
263. MONAGHAN, FRANK. *French Travellers in the United States, 1765-1932: A Bibliography*. New York: New York Public Library, 1933. References on the opinions of foreigners regarding American society. See index under "Education."
264. MORGAN, BAYARD Q. *A Critical Bibliography of German Literature in English Translation, 1481-1927*. Second edition, Stanford University, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1938. Includes lists of translations of works by Froebel, Pestalozzi, Paulsen, and other educators who wrote in German. The supplement covers the years 1928-1935.
265. PAETOW, LOUIS J. *A Guide to the Study of Medieval History*. Revised edition. New York: Crofts, 1931. Very thorough. See index under educational history of universities. In process of revision by Gray C. Boyce of Northwestern University.
266. RAND, BENJAMIN. *Bibliography of Philosophy, Psychology, and Cognate Subjects*. New York: Macmillan, 1905. Part I of Vol. III of James M. Baldwin, editor, *Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology*. See under Alcuin, Alsted, Melanchthon, Vives, and other educators.
267. READ, CONYERS, editor. *Bibliography of British History: Tudor Period, 1485-1603*. Oxford: Clarendon, 1933. Brief annotations of sources and books on educational history, pp. 244-46.
268. SPILLER, ROBERT E. *et al.*, editors. *Literary History of the United States: Bibliography*. New York: Macmillan, 1948. Vol. III of a 3-volume history of American literature. For bibliographies in educational history, see pp. 31-2, 76-9, 91-3, 120-3, 180-1, 225-30, 237-8, 358; also references on A. B. Alcott (pp. 381-2), John Dewey (pp. 465-7), and others who wrote on educational questions.
269. THOMPSON, JAMES W. *Reference Studies in Medieval History*. Revised edition. 3 volumes. Chicago: University of Chicago Press,

1923-24. Classified bibliographies on all phases of medieval educational history and the Renaissance. See Vol. I, pp. 46, 47, 75; Vol. II, pp. 83, 93, 148-150, 170-186; Vol. III, pp. 304-5, 320, 323-28; *et passim*.

270. UDIN, SOPHIE A., editor. *Palestine and Zionism: A Three Year Cumulation, January 1946-December 1948*. New York: Zionist Archives and Library, 1949. An index of periodical articles and a separate index of books and articles which include under "Education" many references on Jewish education all over the world. Numerous references on educational history. Especially valuable for education in Palestine and Israel. A bimonthly index with annual and triennial cumulations.

271. WILLIAMS, JUDITH B. *A Guide to the Printed Materials for English Social and Economic History, 1750-1850*. Vol. II. New York: Columbia University Press, 1926. Concise annotations, chiefly of original source materials in educational history, pp. 451-501.

272. WORK, MONROE N., editor. *A Bibliography of the Negro in Africa and America*. New York: Wilson, 1928. A comprehensive listing of books, pamphlets, and articles, some of them briefly annotated. Excellent references on the educational history of the Negro—pp. 232-7, 293-5, 416-29, 618-20.

Additional sources of references are Henry P. Beers, *Bibliographies in American History: Guide to Materials for Research* (revised edition, New York, Wilson, 1942); Edith M. Coulter and Melanie Gerstenfeld, *Historical Bibliographies* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1935); Jean C. Roos, *Background Readings for American History* (second revised edition, New York, Wilson, 1940); Justin Winsor, editor, *Narrative and Critical History of America* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1884-9, 9 vols.); Charles V. Langlois, *Manuel de bibliographie historique* (Paris: Hachette, 1901-4, 2 vols.); and *Guide to Catholic Literature* (Detroit: Romig, 1940-4, 2 vols.). For an extensive compilation of historical bibliographies, consult Homer C. Hockett, *Introduction to Research in American History* (second edition, New York, Macmillan, 1948, pp. 144-57).

Biographical Sources

The lives of American educators of the past are included in the following biographical compilations:

Dictionary of American Biography, 1928-1944. 20 volumes, index, and supplement. The most scholarly source of its type. Articles are

signed and include excellent bibliographies. See the index volume under "Educators."

Appleton's Cyclopaedia of American Biography, 1888-1922. 9 volumes. Older, but highly useful. Bibliographies are rare. Contains biographies of many educators not listed in the *Dictionary of American Biography*. Includes persons from Canada and Latin America.

National Cyclopaedia of American Biography, 1898-1945. 32 volumes. The index volume must be used, since the arrangement is not alphabetical. Contains biographies of living persons.

Foreign biographical dictionaries are very numerous and only a few will be listed here: *Dictionary of National Biography* (British), *Who Was Who* (British), *Dictionnaire de biographie française*, and *Allgemeine deutsche Biographie*. Of special significance are the two universal biographical compilations: Michaud's *Biographie universelle* (1843-65) and Hoefer's *Nouvelle biographie générale* (1853-66).

Earlier editions of *Who's Who in America*, *Who's Who* (British), *Oui êtes-vous?*, *Wer ist's*, and the equivalents in other countries will also furnish biographical material on educators who are no longer alive. Current biographical information may be obtained from the more recent editions of the *Who's Who* volumes, as well as from *Current Biography* (New York: Wilson, 1940 to date). This source provides long, animated accounts of the careers of prominent persons in many fields. In education, one may find here better-than-usual biographical treatments of living and recently deceased educators: John Dewey, James B. Conant, Robert M. Hutchins; William C. Bagley, Charles H. Judd. Together with this the student should consult the new *Biography Index* (New York: Wilson, 1946 to date). This is a quarterly index of biographical material in current books and periodicals. In the case of deceased persons, the index lists obituaries in newspapers and magazines. Not only are contemporary educators included, but also those of earlier centuries all over the world. Check the index under "College," "Educators," "Teachers," etc.

General Historical Works

The following works will help the student obtain not only a good understanding of the general historical framework of an educational

problem, but also some specific information in educational history: *Harper's Encyclopaedia of United States History* (10 vols., 1902); William L. Langer, editor, *An Encyclopedia of World History* (revised edition, Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1948); *Cambridge Mediaeval History* (6 vols. 1924-36); *Cambridge Modern History* (14 vols., 1902-12); Albert B. Hart, editor, *The American Nation: A History* (28 vols., 1904-18); Arthur M. Schlesinger and Dixon R. Fox, editors, *History of American Life* (1927-); *Harper's Encyclopaedia of United States History* (10 vols., 1902); James T. Adams, editor, *Dictionary of American History* (6 vols., 1940); William L. Langer, editor, *The Rise of Modern Europe* (1934-); *Cambridge History of English Literature* (15 vols., 1907-27); and *Cambridge History of American Literature* (3 vols., 1933-40), especially vol. III, pp. 385-424. Mention may also be made of *Histoire littéraire de la France* (new edition, 1865-), which carries the history of French literature to the end of the fourteenth century. See Camille Rivain's *Table générale . . . de l'histoire littéraire de la France* (1875), the index to the first 15 volumes, pp. 221-6, for references to articles on ancient and medieval education in France.

There are a number of good history textbooks which will help the student's orientation. Only some will be mentioned here: Lynn Thorndike, *A Short History of Civilization* (second edition, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948); Harry E. Barnes, *An Intellectual and Cultural History of the Western World* (revised edition, New York, Reynal and Hitchcock, 1941); C. E. Van Sickle, *A Political and Cultural History of the Ancient World* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1947-8, 2 vols.); Carl Stephenson, *Mediaeval History* (revised edition, New York, Harper, 1943); Henry S. Lucas, *The Renaissance and the Reformation* (New York: Harper, 1934); Chester P. Higby, *Europe, 1492 to 1815: A Social, Cultural, and Political History* (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1948); Walter P. Hall and William S. Davis, *The Course of Europe Since Waterloo* (second edition, New York, Appleton-Century, 1947); Geoffrey Bruun, *The World of the Twentieth Century* (Boston: Heath, 1948); Hans Kohn, *The Idea of Nationalism* (New York: Macmillan, 1944); John H. Randall, Jr.,

The Making of the Modern Mind (revised edition, Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1940); Harold U. Faulkner, *American Political and Social History* (fifth edition, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948); Merle Curti, *The Growth of American Thought*, (New York: Harper, 1943); Oliver P. Chitwood, *A History of Colonial America* (second edition, New York, Harper, 1948); and Dwight L. Dumond, *America in Our Time: 1896-1946* (New York: Holt, 1947).

REFERENCE WORKS IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

This part of the chapter deals solely with educational reference materials which are specifically useful in research in educational history.

Bibliographies

Nearly all encyclopedias, textbooks, and monographs in educational history described in Chapter II contain bibliographies. Of these, the most extensive and best annotated in the "bibliographical commentary" is John S. Brubacher, *A History of the Problems of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1947, pp. 643-68). Another exceptional bibliography appears at the end of Robert Ulrich's *History of Educational Thought* (New York: American Book Co., 1945, pp. 351-403). The following are bibliographies which encompass the general field of educational history and many of its specialized phases:

273. *A Catalogue of Rare and Valuable Early Schoolbooks*. London: Quaritch, 1932. An excellently annotated list of textbooks of the fifteenth to seventeenth centuries, as well as of early editions of educational classics by Ascham, Comenius, Erasmus, Locke, Mulcaster, Vives, etc.

274. ADAMSON, JOHN W. *A Guide to the History of Education*. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, 1920. Contains numerous references on most phases of educational history.

275. BARDEEN, CHARLES W. *Catalogue of Rare Books on Pedagogy*. Syracuse, N. Y.: Bardeen, 1894. Suggestive for research on the history of teacher training.

276. BETTS, EMMETT A., and BETTS, THELMA M. *An Index to Professional Literature on Reading and Related Topics*. New York: American Book Co., 1945. Studies of interest to the educational historian may

be located via the heading, "History of Reading Instruction," p. 133, in the Topical Index.

277. BLANCO Y SÁNCHEZ, RUFINO. *Bibliografía general de la educación física*. 2 vols. Madrid: Hernando, 1927. Includes many titles and primary sources of value in research on the history of physical education. Partially annotated. Prefaces in Spanish, French, and English. Vol. II contains numerous indexes—author, subject, date and place of publication, periodicals.

278. BLANCO Y SÁNCHEZ, RUFINO. *Bibliografía pedagógica de obras escritas en Castellano o traducidas a este idioma*. 5 vols. Madrid: Tipografía de la Revista de Arch. Bibl. y Museos, 1907-12. An extremely unusual bibliography of educational writings in Spanish. This list includes books and manuscripts dating from 1299 to 1912, each accompanied by a summary ranging from a few lines to as many as 20 double-column, large-format pages. Short, preliminary essay on the history of educational ideas in Spain and Latin America. Vol. 5 contains various valuable indexes. This bibliography is highly useful for research in the history of education in Spain and in Latin America.

279. BLANCO Y SÁNCHEZ, RUFINO. *Bibliografía pedagógica del siglo XX: 1900-1930*. 3 volumes. Madrid: Hernando, 1932-33. A representative collection in several languages with the accent on the Spanish. Vol. III contains directions in Spanish, French, English, and German for using this bibliography. Author-title-subject index in Vol. III (for educational history, see pp. 116-18, 186-8, *et passim*).

280. BLANCO Y SÁNCHEZ, RUFINO. *Notas bibliográficas referentes a la storia de la educación y la historia de la pedagogía*. Madrid: Revista de Archivos, 1922. A total of 1673 titles, 1515 of which deal with educational history. References in several languages.

281. BLANCO SUAREZ, P. *Historia de la educación y de la pedagogía*. Madrid: Cosano, 1923. A valuable bibliography for the history of education in Spain and Latin America. Includes Spanish translations of writings by non-Spanish educators and Spanish works on foreign education. Detailed tables of contents are given for many books. Excellent index.

282. BOYCE, GRAY C. "American Studies in Medieval Education," pp. 6-30, in S. Harrison Thomson, editor, *Progress in Medieval and Renaissance Studies in the United States and Canada*. Bulletin No. 19. Boulder: University of Colorado, 1947. A critical bibliographical essay of scholarly merit. A unique, first-rate guide to publications on the history of education in the middle ages.

283. BRICKMAN, WILLIAM W. "College and University History," *School and Society*, Vol. 64, December 28, 1946, pp. 465-71; "Educational Biography," *School and Society*, Vol. 64, October 26, 1946, pp. 297-303; "Educational Biography and Autobiography," *School and Society*, Vol. 69, March 5, 1949, pp. 175-81; "Educational History," *School and Society*, Vol. 65, March 5, 1949, pp. 211-18; "Higher Educational His-

48 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

tory," *School and Society*, Vol. 69, May 28, 1949, pp. 385-91. These articles review critically the recent writings in the respective areas of the history of education. They are part of a series appearing in *School and Society* since July, 1946, under the general caption, "Educational Literature Review." For a full list of other titles, most of which also include discussions of volumes in educational history, the student is referred to the *Education Index* under the author's name. The articles were generally published in the last weekly issue of each month.

284. BROWN, ELMER E. "Bibliography," pp. 481-518, in *The Making of Our Middle Schools*. New York: Longmans, Green, 1902. A briefly annotated bibliography of the history of secondary education in the United States.

285. BROWN, ELMER E. "The History of Secondary Education in the United States—Bibliography," *School Review*, V, February, 1897, pp. 59-66; March, 1897, pp. 139-47. Helpful for research on the nineteenth century.

286. *Bücher-Verzeichnis der Süddeutschen Lehrerbücherei München*. Part I. Munich: Verlag der Süddeutschen Lehrerbücherei, 1927. A classified bibliography of educational history (nearly all titles in German), pp. 55-74, 81-96, 129-131, *et passim*. No annotations.

287. BUISSON, FERDINAND. *Répertoire des ouvrages pédagogiques du XVI^e siècle*. Paris: Imprimerie Nationale, 1886. A good list for studies on the sixteenth century. Part of Musée Pédagogique, Paris. *Catalogue des ouvrages et documents*.

288. BURNHAM, WILLIAM H. "Bibliographies on Educational Subjects: The History of Education," Publications of Clark University Library, Vol. V, Sept., 1917. Worcester, Mass.: Clark University Press, 1917. Prepared by a noted specialist.

289. BUTTS, R. FREEMAN. "Bibliography of Higher Education," pp. 427-42, in *The College Charts Its Course*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1939. An annotated list of studies in the history of American higher education, source materials on college problems, and bibliographies.

290. CHAMBERS, M. M., *et al.* "History of Education and Comparative Education," *Review of Educational Research*, XX, October, 1939, pp. 333-448. Fifteen bibliographical essays, written for the most part by authorities, on the following topics: preschool, elementary, secondary, higher, and adult education; education and social trends; British Commonwealth of Nations, Latin America, Germany, Czechoslovakia, and the Far East; education in the ancient world, comparative colonial education, comparative school finance, and comparative vocational education and guidance. The writings represented in this bibliography were published during 1936-39.

291. CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *Syllabus of Lectures on the History of Education*. Second edition, New York: Macmillan, 1904. A well-classified and critically annotated general bibliography on educational

history, followed by references on specialized phases. Dated, but still useful in research work.

291. DAVIS, SHELDON E. *Educational Periodicals during the Nineteenth Century*. U. S. Bureau of Education. Bulletin 1919, No. 28. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1919. A detailed and careful analysis which serves as a key to rich source materials on American educational history. A chronological, annotated list of educational periodicals appears on pp. 93-112.

= 293. EDWARDS, NEWTON. "General Methods: Historical, Comparative, and Documentary Research," pp. 273-83, in Frank N. Freeman, chairman, *The Scientific Movement in Education* (The Thirty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, part II, Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1938). A guide to the literature on educational history. The bibliography contains 63 titles.

294. EDWARDS, NEWTON, et al. "History of Education and Comparative Education," *Review of Educational Research*, VI, October, 1936, pp. 353-456. Ten bibliographical articles on educational history in the United States, Canada, England, France, Germany, Italy, and Scandinavia. A basic bibliography which should be made available to all students of the history of education.

295. ENSLIN, THEODOR C. F., editor. *Bibliotheca Paedagogica*. Berlin: Enslin, 1824. An alphabetical list of schoolbooks and educational works published in Germany up to 1823. Helpful for research in German educational history. No annotations.

296. ERMAN, WILHELM, and HORN, EWALD, editors. *Bibliographie der deutschen Universitäten*. 3 vols. Leipzig: Teubner, 1904-5. Most of the more than 39,000 references are primary sources, monographs, and treatises on the history of German universities. The other titles are now also of historical value.

297. *Exhibit of Books and Documents—History of Education*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1936. A catalogue of 170 selected items, most of them annotated. Expositions of educational theory, noted textbooks, laws, letters, school catalogues, and other source materials are included. All writings in this bibliography are available in the Harvard library.

298. Federal Writers' Project, WPA, Massachusetts. *Selective and Critical Bibliography of Horace Mann*. Boston: State Department of Education, 1937. An annotated compilation of publications by and about Horace Mann.

299. FLÜGEL, O. "Literatur der Philosophie Herbarts und seiner Schule," pp. 254-64, in W. Rein, editor, *Encyklopädisches Handbuch der Pädagogik* (second edition, IV, Langensalza, Beyer, 1906). Philosophical and psychological works by and about Herbart. Many foreign writings on Herbart are included.

300. GREEN, PAUL G. *An Annotated Bibliography of the History of*

Education in Kansas. Emporia: Kansas State Teachers College, 1935. A classified list consisting mainly of secondary sources.

301. GREENWOOD, JAMES M., and MARTIN, ARTEMAS. "Notes on the History of American Text-Books on Arithmetic," pp. 789-868, *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1897-98*, Vol. I. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1899. Descriptions of books of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Includes biographical sketches of many authors.

302. HALL, G. STANLEY. "On the History of American College Text-Books and Teaching in Logic, Ethics, Psychology and Allied Subjects," *Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society*, New Series, IX, April, 1894, pp. 137-74. Alphabetical list of books used as textbooks, pp. 162-74. Useful for the history of the teaching of philosophy and psychology in American Colleges.

303. HALL, G. STANLEY, and MANSFIELD, JOHN M. *Hints Toward a Select and Descriptive Bibliography of Education*. Boston: Heath, 1886. A classified list of special interest to students of the nineteenth century. Educational history, pp. 3-67, 173-6, *et passim*. Good, brief annotations.

304. HANS, N. "Bibliography of History of Education in the British Commonwealth of Nations," pp. 611-21, in *The Year Book of Education 1940* (London: University of London, Institute of Education, 1940). A total of 172 titles classified by nations.

305. HARTFELDER, KARL. *Philipp Melanchthon als Praeceptor Germaniae*. (Karl Kehrbach, editor, *Monumenta Germaniae Paedagogica*, Vol. VII.) Berlin: Hofmann, 1889. Bibliography of works by and on Melanchthon, pp. 569-647.

306. HEARTMAN, CHARLES F. *American Primers, Indian Primers, Royal Primers*. Highland Park, N. J.: Weiss, 1935. A bibliography of non-New England primers issued before 1830. Facsimiles of many title pages. Indicates location of the primers in various libraries.

307. HEYBERGER, ANNA. "Select Bibliography of the Educational and Scientific Works of Comenius," pp. 90-100, in Joseph Needham, editor, *The Teacher of Nations* (Cambridge: University Press, 1942). An annotated chronological list in Czech and Latin. Also selected works on Comenius.

308. HOHNERLEIN, MAX, editor. *Nachweis von Quellen zu pädagogischen Studien und Arbeiten*. Stuttgart: Süddeutsche Verlagsbuchhandlung, 1900. Bibliography of works on and about educators of the past (pp. 2-42, 226-9), and a bibliography of general and specialized books in educational history.

309. INVERARDI, RICARDO. *Bibliografia dell'educazione e dell'insegnamento*. Milan: Hoepli, 1893. A partially annotated bibliography which includes titles in educational history, as well as references now of historical value.

310. ISRAEL, A. *Pestalozzi-Bibliographie*. 3 vols. Berlin: Hofmann

1903-5. Annotations of the publications and letters of Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi, as well as of writings about him.

311. "Jahresbericht," *Mitteilungen der Gesellschaft für deutsche Erziehungs- und Schulgeschichte*, 1905, pp. 35-82, 130-77, 218-66, 310-47. A critical discussion, by qualified specialists, of the recent literature on many periods and topics in educational history. Beginning with 1907, this annual bibliography was entitled *Historisch-pädagogischer Literatur-Bericht* and published as a supplement (*Beiheft*) to the *Mitteilungen*. Very valuable for the writings, chiefly German, in educational history which were published in the early twentieth century.

312. JAMES, CONCHA R. *A Bibliography on Education in Latin America*. Washington, D. C.: Pan-American Union, 1932. Includes references on the history of education in Latin America.

313. KARPINSKI, LOUIS C. *Bibliography of Mathematical Works Printed in America through 1850*. A compilation of over a thousand books (in 3000 editions), representing the mathematical textbooks issued in the United States, Canada, and the West Indies until 1850, and in Central and South America until 1800. Unquestionably a valuable reference source for the history of mathematics instruction in America.

314. KNIGHT, EDGAR W. "History of Education," pp. 580-4, in Walter S. Monroe, editor, *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York: Macmillan, 1941). An essay describing 56 representative research studies.

315. LEIDECKER, KURT F. "Bibliography: William Torrey Harris in Literature," pp. 125-36, in Edward L. Schaub, editor, *William Torrey Harris, 1835-1935* (Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co., 1936). A comprehensive list of writings about Harris, including references in French, German, and Spanish.

316. LUCKEY, G. W. A. "History of Education," pp. 265-391, in *The Professional Training of Secondary Teachers in the United States*. (Ph.D. dissertation, Columbia University; New York, the author, 1903.) A classified bibliography along the general lines of the Cubberley bibliography (see above), but not as extensive. Out-of-date, but still serviceable, on account of the good older references.

317. MANN, B. PICKMAN. "Bibliography of Horace Mann," pp. 897-927, in *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1896-97*. Vol. I. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1898. A list of works by and about Horace Mann.

318. MONROE, WALTER S., and SHORES, LOUIS. *Bibliography and Summaries in Education to July 1935*. New York: Wilson, 1936. Educational history, pp. 83, 85-94, 194-202, *et passim*. Briefly annotated.

319. MONROE, WILL S. *Bibliography of Education*. New York: Appleton, 1897. Similar to the Hall-Mansfield bibliography (see above). Educational history, pp. 4-36, 74-8, 105-7, 177-83, *et passim*. Tables of contents of reports of the U. S. Commissioner of Education, Horace Mann's reports, and William T. Harris' reports in St. Louis, pp. 175-77.

52 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

320. MONROE, WILL S. *Bibliography of Henry Barnard*. Boston: New England Publishing Co., 1897. A short list which is helpful in research on the life and work of this great educator. Includes publications by and about Barnard. Foreign titles in Italian, German, French, and Swedish. No annotations.
321. MULES, MARY, BUTCHERS, A. G., and McQUEEN, H. C. *A Bibliography of New Zealand Education*. Revised edition. Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1947. Educational history, pp. 13-14, 26-27, *et passim*. A classified compilation of educational laws, reports, documents, and other materials helpful in research on the history of education in New Zealand. No annotations.
322. MUNDT, HERMANN. *Bio-bibliographisches Verzeichnis von Universitäts- u. Hochschuldrucken (Dissertationen) vom Ausgang des 16. bis Ende des 19. Jahrhunderts*. Leipzig: Carlsohn, 1936—. A bibliography of doctoral dissertations from the seventeenth to the nineteenth centuries. For research in higher educational history.
323. MUSÉE PÉDAGOGIQUE, PARIS. *Catalogue des ouvrages et documents*. Edited by Gaston Bonet-Maury. 3 vols. Paris: Imprimerie Nationale, 1886-9. Primary sources and educational writings of use in the educational history of the nineteenth and earlier centuries.
324. NELSON, MARTHA F., compiler. *Index by Authors, Titles and Subjects to the Publications of the National Educational Association for Its First Fifty Years, 1857 to 1906*. Winona, Minn.: National Educational Association, 1907. Useful as a guide to determine the educational ideas and achievements of professional educators during the last half of the nineteenth century.
325. PETTITT, GEORGE A. "Bibliography," pp. 165-78, in *Primitive Education in North America*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1946. A comprehensive, unannotated list. The text proper offers an analysis of the findings of most of these studies.
- 326. REDDICK, L. D. "Select Bibliography," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, Vol. 19, April, 1946, pp. 512-16. A list of 59 titles, most of which treat the history of Negro education in the United States. A few words of annotation for some items.
327. RYAN, W. CARSON, JR. *The Literature of American School and College Athletics*. Bulletin No. 24. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1929. Long, excellent annotations of 1030 references. Pp. 59-78 deal with writings on the history of athletics in American schools and colleges. Other sections of this volume are also useful for the history of physical education. The best source of references on the controversy in American college athletics.
328. SCHERER, H., editor. *Geschichte der Pädagogik und ihrer Hilfswissenschaften*. Heft 13, *Führer durch die Strömungen auf dem Gebiete der Pädagogik und ihrer Hilfswissenschaften*. Leipzig: Wunderlich, 1910. A lengthy discussion of the history of education and the history of

philosophy, followed by a partially annotated list of 357 works in both areas.

329. SHELDON, HENRY D. *A Critical and Descriptive Bibliography of the History of Education in the State of Oregon*. University of Oregon Publications, Vol. 2. Eugene: University of Oregon, 1929. A compilation of briefly annotated books, dissertations, and articles.

330. SIMPSON, BENJAMIN R., et al. "Annotated Chronological Bibliography of Publications by E. L. Thorndike," *Teachers College Record*, XXVII, February, 1926, pp. 466-515. Descriptive annotations by several persons. Includes the writings from 1898 to 1925 by the great educational psychologist. Supplemented by "Publications from 1898 to 1940 by E. L. Thorndike," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 41, May, 1940, pp. 699-725 (unannotated).

331. SMITH, DAVID E. *Rara Arithmetica*. Boston: Ginn, 1908. A descriptive catalogue of arithmetic textbooks written before 1601. Contains facsimiles of title and other pages. See also David E. Smith, *Addenda to Rara Arithmetica* (Boston: Ginn, 1939).

332. SMITH, HENRY L. and PAINTER, WILLIAM I. *Bibliography of Literature on Education in Countries Other Than the United States of America*. Bloomington: Bureau of Cooperative Research, Indiana University, 1937. A briefly annotated compilation of 3510 titles in English on comparative education. Many of these publications are useful in educational history. There are two publications issued during 1937 having identical titles. Vol. XIII, No. 2, deals with materials issued from 1925 to 1936; Vol. XIV, No. 1, with materials published from 1919 to 1924.

333. THOMAS, MILTON H. *A Bibliography of John Dewey, 1882-1939*. Revised edition. New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. The most thorough collection of Dewey's writings in philosophy and education, as well as of publications about Dewey. Includes translations.

334. TUROSIENSKI, SEVERIN K. *Education in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and in Imperial Russia*. U. S. Office of Education, Leaflet No. 28, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1940. Short annotations of 136 references in English, French, German, and Russian. Omits several important publications.

335. TUROSIENSKI, SEVERIN K. *Foreign and Comparative Education: A List of References*. U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1934, No. 10. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1934. An annotated bibliography classified by topic and country. Includes many titles in a variety of languages on the educational history of countries all over the world. The mention of official documents and reports makes this listing an especially helpful source for the history of recent educational developments.

336. U. S. Bureau of Education. *Index to the Reports of the Commissioner of Education: 1867-1907*. Bulletin 1909, No. 7. Washington,

D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1909. A highly useful compilation. These reports are valuable source materials in themselves, and often include excellent studies on the history of education in the United States and abroad.

337. U. S. Bureau of Education. *List of Publications of the Office of Education, 1910-1936*. Bulletin 1937, No. 22, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1937. This bibliography includes the publications of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, 1917-33.

338. WILSON, LOUIS N. "Bibliography of the Published Writings of President G. Stanley Hall," *American Journal of Psychology*, XIV, July-October, 1903, pp. 417-30. Also in *Publications of the Clark University Library*, I, October, 1903, pp. 3-16. An unannotated listing of over 200 entries.

339. WILSON, LOUIS N. "Bibliography of the Published Writings of G. Stanley Hall: 1866-1924," pp. 155-80, in National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, *Biographical Memoir*, Vol. XII. (Washington, D. C.: National Academy of Sciences, 1929.) The most satisfactory and fullest bibliography of the noted American psychologist and leader in higher education.

340. WOOTON, FLAUD C. "Primitive Education in the History of Education," *Harvard Educational Review*, Vol. 16, Fall, 1946, pp. 235-54. An unparalleled critique of the treatment of primitive education in textbooks in the history of education. Also a constructive synthesis of up-to-date, scientific content based on an examination of anthropological and ethnological textbooks and monographs. A superb example of the method of evaluating material in publications in the field of educational history.

341. ZIEGLER, C. "Literatur der Pädagogik Herbarts und seiner Schule," pp. 264-78, in W. Rein, editor, *Encyklopädisches Handbuch der Pädagogik* (second edition, IV, Langensalza, Beyer, 1906). A classified bibliography of works about Herbart. Unannotated.

Biographical Sources

In addition to the biographical dictionaries described in the first part of this chapter, there are special directories and other reference works which deal exclusively with educators. Among these are the following:

342. ABORN, CAROLINE D., *et al.*, editors. *Pioneers of the Kindergarten in America*. New York: Century, 1924. Popular, undocumented accounts of Elizabeth P. Peabody, Maria Kraus Boelte, Matilda H. Krieger, and others.

343. BARDEEN, C. W. *A Dictionary of Educational Biography*. Syracuse, N. Y.: Bardeen, 1901. Very brief, but helpful mainly as a source of names of educators. More research is then needed in other sources.

344. BARNARD, HENRY, editor. *Eminent Teachers and Educators with Contributions to the History of Education in Germany*. Revised edition. Hartford: Brown and Cross, 1878. Biographical studies of educators from the seventh to the nineteenth centuries. Includes Erasmus, Luther, Melanchthon, Sturm, Basedow, *et al.* Contains source materials.
345. BARNARD, HENRY, editor. *Memoirs of Teachers, Educators, and Promoters and Benefactors of Education, Literature and Science*. New York: Brownell, 1859. Lengthy articles, reprinted from the *American Journal of Education* on Ezekiel Cheever, Samuel R. Hall, James G. Carter, *et al.*
346. CASSIDY, FRANK P. *Molders of the Medieval Mind*. St. Louis: Herder, 1944. Biographical sketches, educational ideas, and influence of the Greek and Roman Fathers of the Church.
347. CLIFTON, JOHN L. *Ten Famous American Educators*. Columbus, Ohio: Adams, 1933. Documented studies of Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, William H. McGuffey, Noah Webster, William T. Harris, William R. Harper, William James, Charles W. Eliot, Frances Willard, and Thomas W. Harvey. Bibliography.
348. DE HOVRE, FRANZ. *Catholicism in Education*. New York: Benziger, 1934. Discusses the lives and ideas of Bishop John L. Spalding, Msgr. Felix A. Dupanloup, Cardinal Newman, Cardinal Mercier, and Otto Willmann.
349. DE HOVRE, F. and BRECKX, L. *Les maîtres de la pédagogie contemporaine*. Revised edition. Bruges, Belgium: Beyaert, 1947 (?). Biographical sketches of twentieth-century educators in various countries.
350. DE HOVRE, FRANZ. *Philosophy and Education*. New York: Benziger, 1930. Includes biographical data on Emile Boutroux, Rudolf Eucken, Georg Kerchensteiner, Otto Willmann, Friedrich W. Foerster, Emile Durkheim, and other European educators whose ideas, and very names, are rarely mentioned in the textbooks. Translated from the French by Edward B. Jordan.
351. JESUALDO. *17 Educadores de America*. Montevideo, Uruguay: Ediciones Pueblos Unidos, (1945). The lives and achievements of 17 educators of North and South America: Horace Mann, Domingo Faustino Sarmiento, José Pedro Varela, John Dewey, Helen Parkhurst, Carleton Washburne, Eugenio María de Hostos, *et al.*
352. MARX, ALEXANDER. *Essays in Jewish Biography*. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America, 1948. Biographies of twelve Jewish scholars and educators, from Rab Saadia Gaon (882-942) to the twentieth century. Bibliographical notes.
353. MEYER, ADOLPH E. *Modern European Educators and Their Work*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1934. Accounts of the lives and labors of Jan Lighhart, Maria Montessori, Ovide Decroly, Roger Cousinet, Berthold Otto, Hermann Lietz, Gustav Wyneken, Paul Geheeb, and others. Classified bibliography.

354. RISSMANN, ROBERT. *Deutsche Pädagogen des 19. Jahrhunderts.* Leipzig: Klinkhardt, 1910. Biographies of some famous German educators of the nineteenth century: Wilhelm Harnisch, Adolf Diesterweg, Johann H. G. Heusinger, Friedrich W. Dörpfeld, *et al.* No bibliography.

355. ROSSELLO, P. *Forerunners of the International Bureau of Education.* London: University of London Institute of Education, (1944). Abridged and translated by Marie Butts. Biographical details on Marc-Antoine Jullien, Fannie Fern Andrews, and other leaders in international education.

356. ROSSELLO, P. *Les précurseurs du Bureau International D'Education.* Geneva: Bureau International D'Education, 1943. The original of the preceding work.

357. SAUPE, EMIL. *Deutsche Pädagogen der Neuzeit.* Seventh-eighth edition. Osterwieck: Zickfeldt, 1929. Biographies of well-known German educators, including Wilhelm Rein, August Lay, Ernst Meumann, William Stern, Paul Barth, Paul Natorp, Hermann Lietz, Berthold Otto, Friedrich Paulsen and Georg Kerschensteiner.

358. WINSHIP, A. E. *Great American Educators.* Chicago: American Book Co., 1900. Elementary; needs supplementation.

Contemporary and recently deceased educators may be located in the current and earlier editions of *Leaders in Education*, *Who's Who in American Education*, *American Men of Science*, *The Psychological Register*, and *Directory of American Scholars*. Data on foreign educators may be obtained from corresponding biographical directories in the respective countries.

Finally, the student will find pertinent information in many textbooks in educational history, as well as in biographies and autobiographies which have been published on the careers of many educators. Among the biographies are Harry R. Warfel's *Noah Webster*, Albert Malche's *Vie de Pestalozzi*, and S. S. Laurie's *Comenius*. Examples of educational autobiographies are Abraham Flexner's *I Remember*, Paul H. Hanus' *Adventuring in Education*, Booker T. Washington's *Up from Slavery*, John Erskine's *My Life as a Teacher*, and G. Stanley Hall's *Life and Confessions of a Psychologist*.

Encyclopedias

As mentioned in Chapter II, the older educational encyclopedias by Buisson, Rein, Kiddle and Schem, Sonnenschein (publisher),

Watson, and Paul Monroe, contain articles and other information of significance for research in educational history. Other useful encyclopedias are *Pädagogisches Lexikon*, (4 vols., 1928), *Lexikon der Pädagogik der Gegenwart* (2 vols., 1932), *Handbuch der Erziehungswissenschaft* (1930), *Handbuch der Pädagogik* (5 vols., 1928-32), *Encyklopädisches Handbuch der Erziehungskunde* (1884), Roloff's *Lexikon der Pädagogik* (5 vols., 1913-17), and *Dizionario delle Scienze Pedagogiche* (2 vols., 1929).

Periodicals

Professional and learned periodicals publish occasional contributions in educational history. In recent years the following have printed such studies: *American Historical Review*, *Hispanic American Historical Review*, *Isis*, *Historia Judaica*, *Journal of Negro History*, *Speculum*, *New York History*, *William and Mary Quarterly*, and *Bulletin of the History of Medicine*, among others. Articles dealing with various phases of the history of education appear more frequently in *Education*, *Educational Forum*, *Elementary School Journal*, *School Review*, *Educational Administration and Supervision*, *Catholic Educational Review*, *Journal of Negro Education*, *Library Quarterly*, *School and Society*, *Educational Record*, *Journal of Higher Education*, *Modern Language Journal*, *Hispania*, *Journal of Educational Research*, *Harvard Educational Review*, *Peabody Journal of Education*, *Teachers College Record*, *Internationale Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft*, and other educational journals. Among the periodicals no longer being published, Barnard's *American Journal of Education* may be cited as the outstanding source of articles on educational history. Other older journals with helpful articles are *Educational Review*, *The Academician*, Russell's *American Journal of Education* (later *American Annals of Education and Instruction*), *Common School Journal*, and *Connecticut Common School Journal*. *Zeitschrift für Geschichte der Erziehung und des Unterrichts* was a very scholarly German periodical devoted entirely to educational history. *Neue Bahnen* (previously *Paedagogium*) also contained good historical contributions.

Reports

Annual and other reports of an official nature are splendid source materials for research purposes. The most famous, and at the same time the most significant, for American educational history are the *Reports of the Commissioner of Education of the United States* (from 1868), the twelve annual reports of Horace Mann as secretary of the Board of Education of Massachusetts (1838-49), the twelve annual reports of William T. Harris as superintendent of the schools of St. Louis (1868-80), and the reports of Henry Barnard as superintendent of the schools of Connecticut and Rhode Island. All contain articles dealing specifically with the history of education. Students interested in education abroad should consult the *Special Reports on Educational Subjects*, issued from 1897 by the Education Department of Great Britain. These reports contain, for the most part, articles on comparative education which are of historical value today. They also include articles on the history of education in various countries.

Source Collections

Thoughtful scholars have gathered original materials on educational history from sources frequently inaccessible to the student. In many cases they have translated these materials from foreign languages and have provided introductions and comments. Students preparing term reports can make good use of the source collections which are owned by their institutional library. The annotated list furnished here comprises a wide variety of source books, and it is likely that each college library possesses a sufficient number of them. The volumes chosen for this particular bibliography contain writings by several educators or different writings by one educator. Editions of single educational classics have been excluded, since they are easily identifiable by title.

359. ANDERSON, LEWIS F., editor. *Pestalozzi*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1931. Selections from nine works by the famous Swiss educator.

360. ANSTEY, HENRY, editor. *Epistolae Academicæ Oxon.* 2 vols. Part I, 1421-1457; Part II, 1457-1509. Oxford: Clarendon, 1898. A collection of letters and documents illustrating academic life and the curriculum

at Oxford University in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Nearly all the sources are in Latin. Historical introduction.

361. ANSTEY, HENRY. *Munimenta Academicu*. 2 vols. London: Longmans, Green, 1868. Latin documents illustrating the academic life and curriculum at Oxford University from the thirteenth to the fifteenth centuries. Long historical introduction, marginal notes, summary, and index in English.

362. ARROWOOD, CHARLES F., editor. *Thomas Jefferson and Education in a Republic*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1930. Excerpts from Jefferson's letters, reports, and other expressions on education. Introduction treats Jefferson's life, educational ideas, and educational services.

363. ASSAF, SIMHA, editor. *Mekorot l'toledot ha-hinuch b'Yisrael*. 4 vols. Tel-Aviv: Dvir, 1925-42. Sources in Hebrew and Yiddish on the history of Jewish education from the beginning of the middle ages until the nineteenth century. Explanatory notes by the editor.

364. BARKER, Ross. *Owen's Education Acts Manual*. 23rd edition. London: Knight, 1936. Texts of the British Education Acts, 1921-36. Also acts pertaining to various phases of education, from 1601 to 1936. Summaries of court cases involving these laws.

365. BARNARD, HENRY, editor. *Educational Aphorisms and Suggestions: Ancient and Modern*. New York: Brownell, 1861. The "most remarkable sayings of wise and good men, in different countries and in different ages, on the subject of Education and Schools." Authorship is identified, but there is no indication of the written source. Reprinted from the *American Journal of Education*.

366. BOYD, WILLIAM, editor. *The Minor Educational Writings of Jean Jacques Rousseau*. London: Blackie, 1911. Translations of "Considerations on the Government of Poland," "The Education of Julie's Children" from the "New Heloise," and five more relatively unfamiliar educational writings. Introductory comments by the translator.

367. BRUBACHER, JOHN S., editor. *Henry Barnard on Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1931. Selections from Barnard's works with an analytical, biographical introduction.

368. BRÜGMANN, A. *Zucht und Leben der deutschen Studenten*. Berlin: Limpert, 1941. Most of this volume consists of sources describing university students' life in Germany from the seventeenth to the nineteenth centuries.

369. BUISSON, FERDINAND, and FARRINGTON, FREDERIC E., editors. *French Educational Ideals of Today*. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1919. An anthology of the educational thought of such nineteenth- and twentieth-century French leaders as Jules Ferry, Jean Jaurès, Félix Pécaut, Louis Liard, Gustave Lanson, et al.

370. BUNKLEY, ALLISON W., editor. *A Sarmiento Anthology*. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1948. Selections from the literary, educational and political writings of the renowned educator-statesman

of South America. Translation by Stuart E. Grumman and biographical introduction by the editor.

371. BURNET, JOHN, editor. *Aristotle on Education*. Cambridge: University Press, 1903. Long extracts from the *Ethics* and the *Politics*. Translated, with introduction and notes, by the editor.

372. CADET, FELIX. *Port-Royal Education*. New York: Scribner, 1898. Extracts from the writings of Saint-Cyran and other Port-Royal educators. Good source material for the history of French education in the seventeenth century.

373. CALDWELL, OTIS W., and COURTIS, STUART A. *Then and Now in Education, 1845-1923*. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1923. Reprints of old examinations, school reports, and other writings dealing with testing in the schools of nineteenth-century Boston.

374. CHADBOURNE, AVA H., compiler. *Readings in the History of Education in Maine*. Bangor, Me.: Burr, 1932. Documents dealing with the colonial period and the nineteenth century.

375. CLEWS, ELSIE W. *Educational Legislation and Administration of the Colonial Governments*. Columbia University, Contributions to Philosophy, Psychology and Education, Vol. VI, No. 1-4. New York: Macmillan, 1899. Texts of the laws and other documents. An important source for the history of colonial education in America.

376. COON, CHARLES L., editor. *North Carolina Schools and Academies, 1790-1840*. Raleigh, N. C.: Edwards and Broughton, 1915. Documents pertaining to the history of secondary education in North Carolina.

377. COON, CHARLES L., editor. *The Beginnings of Public Education in North Carolina: A Documentary History, 1790-1840*. 2 vols. Raleigh, N. C.: Edwards and Broughton, 1908. Significant reports, letters, and other documents are presented in full.

378. CORDIER, LEOPOLD, compiler. *Christliche Erziehungsgedanken und christliche Erzieher*. Schwerin in Mecklb.: Bahn, 1931. A source book in the history of Christian education from New Testament times to the nineteenth century. All foreign sources are translated into German. A helpful collection for research in religious educational history. Emphasis is on German Protestant education, with virtually no Catholic sources after the sixteenth century.

379. COWLEY, ELIZABETH B. *Free Learning*. Boston: Humphries, 1941. A collection of laws, gubernatorial messages, constitutional provisions, and other documents relevant to education in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and California, from the seventeenth to the twentieth centuries. Not well suited for reference purposes. Sources of the documents are indicated.

380. CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *Readings in Public Education in the United States*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1934. An anthology of original documents on American educational history from colonial times to the present.

381. CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *Readings in the History of Education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1920. Extracts from the works of educators, statutes, courses of study, school regulations, and other sources from the Greek period to the present.

382. CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P., and ELLIOTT, EDWARD C. *State and County School Administration*: Vol. II, Source Book. New York: Macmillan, 1915. Texts of the constitutional provisions for education in the several states in the eighteenth century; land-grant ordinances for schools and the other types of school grants; documents illustrating federal aid to education; and court decisions. Most of the sources deal with the contemporary problems of educational administration and finance, which now belong to history.

383. DE LA FONTAINERIE, F., editor. *French Liberalism and Education in the Eighteenth Century*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1932. Translations of essays on national education by La Chalotais, Turgot, Diderot, and Condorcet. Historical introduction.

384. DENNIS, WAYNE, editor. *Readings in the History of Psychology*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948. Includes extracts of educational significance from the works of Aristotle, Locke, Galton, Preyer, Hall, Cattell, Thorndike, Binet, and other psychologists. Helpful for research in the history of educational psychology.

385. DEXTER, FRANKLIN B., editor. *Documentary History of Yale University*, New Haven; Yale University Press, 1916. Letters, proceedings of trustees, legislative documents, and other primary sources relating to the history of the Collegiate School of Connecticut (Yale's original name), 1701-45.

386. DOLCH, JOSEF. *Lesebuch zur Erziehungswissenschaft*. Frankfurt A/M.: Diesterweg, 1940. An anthology of educational thought and practice from Plato onward. Emphasis on German educational works.

387. EBY, FREDERICK, editor. *Early Protestant Educators*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1931. The writings of Luther, Melanchthon, Bugenhagen, Calvin, and Knox. Short introduction.

388. EBY, FREDERICK, compiler. *Education in Texas: Source Materials*. University of Texas, Bulletin No. 1824. Austin: University of Texas, 1918. A 963-page volume, including a 72-page bibliography. Begins with the Spanish colonial period in the late eighteenth century and ends with 1890. Indispensable for research in Texas educational history.

389. ELLIOTT, EDWARD C., and CHAMBERS, M. M., editors. *Charters and Basic Laws of Selected American Universities and Colleges*. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1934. Presents the texts of laws relating to the founding of 51 educational institutions (Cornell, Harvard, Oberlin, Northwestern, Wisconsin, Stanford, Yale, etc.). Appendix contains the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890, other federal legislation, and a list of judicial decisions in higher education.

390. EVANS, HENRY R., compiler. *Expressions on Education by American Statesmen and Publicists*. U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1913, No. 28. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1913. Statements by presidents, statesmen and educators from the eighteenth to the twentieth century. Exact sources are indicated.
391. EVANS, HENRY R., and WRIGHT, EDITH A., compilers. *Expressions on Education by Builders of American Democracy*. U. S. Government Office of Education, Bulletin 1940, No. 10. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1941. An expanded edition of the previous publication.
392. *Federal Laws and Rulings Relating to Morrill and Supplementary Morrill Funds for Land-Grant Colleges and Universities*. U. S. Offices of Education, Pamphlet No. 91. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Offices, 1940. Full texts of the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890, the Amendments of 1866 and 1907, the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935, the Retirement Act of 1940, and rulings on these acts.
393. FISCHER, WALTER W. G., editor. *Erzieher: Zeugnisse bedeutender Deutscher über ihre Lehrer*. Karlsbad: Kraft, 1942. Testimonials by well-known Germans, such as Schiller, Arndt, Hebbel, Wundt, Paulsen, Wilamowitz-Moellendorf, Hindenburg, and Hitler, on the effectiveness of their teachers. Among the teachers thus characterized are Basedow, Francke, Froebel, Grotewohl, Herder, Ohm, and Pestalozzi. Sources, frequently without pagination, are indicated in the author index.
394. FITZPATRICK, EDWARD A., editor. *Readings in the Philosophy of Education*. New York: Appleton-Century, 1936. Excerpts from contemporary and earlier writers on education. Especially rich in selections from Catholic sources.
395. FITZPATRICK, EDWARD A. *St. Ignatius and the Ratio Studiorum*. New York: Macmillan, 1933. Contains the full text of the *Ratio Studiorum* in English and Part IV of the *Constitutions*.
396. FLEMING, WALTER L. *Documentary History of Reconstruction*. Vol. II. Cleveland: Clark, 1907. Excerpts from contemporary discussions by professional organizations, newspaper editorials, congressional and other reports, letters, and other documents on education in the South after the Civil War.
397. FUESS, CLAUDE M., and BASFORD, EMORY S., editors. *Unseen Harvests: A Treasury of Teaching*. New York: Macmillan, 1947. An anthology of miscellaneous passages "which have some bearing on educational policy or procedure, or which, because of their content or purpose, might be conceived of as especially entertaining to teachers." The content includes belles-lettres, autobiography, humor, essays, pedagogical writings, and other types of literature culled from such diverse personalities as Confucius, Quintilian, Santayana, Comenius, Leacock, Maugham, Chaucer, Thackeray, Dickens, and Whitehead.

398. GOODSELL, WILLYSTINE, editor. *Pioneers of Women's Education in the United States*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1931. Selections from the works of Emma Willard, Catherine Beecher, and Mary Lyon. Biographical introductions.
399. GRÉARD, OCTAVE. *La législation de l'enseignement primaire en France depuis 1789 jusqu'à nos jours*. 6 vols. Paris: Délalain, 1890-1900. A compilation of a century of legislation on French elementary education.
400. GÜDEMANN, M., editor. *Quellenschriften zur Geschichte des Unterrichts und der Erziehung bei den deutschen Juden von den ältesten Zeiten bis auf Mendelssohn*. Berlin: Hofmann, 1891. Sources in German, Hebrew, and Yiddish on Jewish education in Germany from the eleventh to the eighteenth centuries. Historical introduction by editor.
401. HAHN, ERICH, editor. *Die Pädagogik der Gegenwart in Selbstdarstellungen*. 2 vols. Leipzig: Meiner, 1926-27. Autobiographies and analyses of personal educational credos by Georg Kerschensteiner, Ludwig Gurlitt, Wilhelm Rein, and other prominent German educators.
402. HAMMOND, WILLIAM G. *Remembrance of Amherst*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1946. Diary of an Amherst undergraduate, 1846-8. Offers insight into college life during the nineteenth century.
403. HARTFELDER, KARL. *Melanchthoniana Paedagogica*. Leipzig: Teubner, 1892. Contains sources on the life and educational work of Philipp Melanchthon—school regulations, letters to and from Melanchthon, documents of the University of Wittenberg, student letters, poems by Melanchthon, statements by contemporary educators and by Melanchthon on education, and numerous other documents.
404. HEUBAUM, A. *Geschichte des deutschen Bildungswesens seit der Mitte des 17. Jahrhunderts*. Berlin: Weidmann, 1905. A history of German education in the seventeenth century, with special references to vocational training.
405. HILKER, FRANZ, editor. *Deutsche Schulversuche*. Berlin: Schwetschke, 1924. Descriptions of German and Austrian experimental schools as presented by pedagogues active in them. The schools discussed include the *Landerziehungsheime*, Wickersdorf, Odenwald, Berthold-Otto-Schule, Freie Waldorfschule, and the Austrian *Bundeserziehungsanstalten*. Among the authors are Alfred Andreesen, Paul Geheebl, Max Bondy, Wilhelm Lamszus, Heinrich Scharrelmann, and Sebald Schwarz. A useful collection for research in the history of progressive education in Germany.
406. HINSDALE, B. A., compiler. "Documents Illustrative of American Educational History," pp. 1225-1414, in *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1892-93*, Vol. II (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1895). From 1636 to the end of the nineteenth century. Annotations by the compiler.

407. HODGINS, J. GEORGE, editor. *Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada*. 28 vols. Toronto: Warwick Bros. & Ritter, Cameron, 1894-1910. Actually a source book on education in Ontario, 1790-1876. Contains many explanatory and historical comments by the editor.
408. HONEYWELL, ROY J. *The Educational Work of Thomas Jefferson*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1931. A study of Jefferson's educational thought and achievement, followed by 90 pages of sources.
409. ISRAEL, AUGUST, editor. *Sammlung selten gewordener pädagogischer Schriften des 16. und 17. Jahrhunderts*. 2 vols. Zschopau: Raschke, 1879-93. Contains educational works by Luther, Erasmus, and Melanchthon, and other sources (Latin and German) of the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries.
410. JOHNSON, CLIFTON. *Old-Time Schools and School-Books*. New York: Macmillan, 1904. Numerous facsimile pages of school books used in American schools during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. There are also many printed extracts from these books.
411. KANDEL, I. L. *The Reform of Secondary Education in France*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924. The appendix contains 125 pages of translated documents—reports, decrees, time schedules, etc.—dealing with French secondary education after World War I. Long essay on historical background.
412. KANDEL, I. L., and ALEXANDER, THOMAS, translators. *The Reorganization of Education in Prussia*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. Contains 470 pages of source materials—constitutional provisions, courses of study, ministerial suggestions, and regulations—relevant to elementary and secondary education in Prussia after World War I. Historical analysis and interpretation by the translators.
413. KEHRBACH, KARL, editor. *Monumenta Germaniae Paedagogica*. Berlin: Weidmann, since 1886. The various volumes contain school ordinances, catechisms, editions of the *Ratio Studiorum*, editions of educational classics, diaries, and other valuable documentary material on German educational history.
414. KILPATRICK, WILLIAM H. *Source Book in the Philosophy of Education*. Revised edition. New York: Macmillan, 1934. Extracts from the writings of philosophers, educators, and others from ancient times to the present.
415. KLAIN, ZORA, editor. *Educational Activities of New England Quakers: A Source Book*. Philadelphia: Westbrook, 1928. Chiefly minutes of meetings, from the seventeenth to the twentieth centuries.
416. KNIGHT, EDGAR W. *A Documentary History of Education in the South before 1860*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1949. The first of five volumes, this collection comprises source materials of all types on Southern education until the Revolutionary period. Very necessary for research in this area.

417. KNIGHT, EDGAR W., editor. *Reports on European Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1930. Reports of European schools by John Griscom, Calvin E. Stowe, and Victor Cousin. Important for the history of American education during the early nineteenth century and interesting on account of the information on contemporary European schools.
418. KNIGHT, EDGAR W. *What College Presidents Say*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1940. Addresses and reports of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.
419. KUEHNER, QUINCY A. *A Philosophy of Education Based on Sources*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1935. Extracts from educational writings since Greek times. Emphasis is on the twentieth century.
420. LEACH, ARTHUR F., editor. *Documents Illustrating Early Education in Worcester, 1685 to 1700*. London: Hughes and Clarke, 1913. A compilation of all available records on the history of education in Worcester (England) until 1700. The documents are in Latin and English. A 90-page introduction is furnished by the editor.
421. LEACH, ARTHUR F. *Early Yorkshire Schools*. Vol. I (Record Series, vol. XXVII, Yorkshire Archaeological Society, 1898). London: Nichols, 1899. Sources in Latin and English, from the eighth to the eighteenth centuries. Historical introduction.
422. LEACH, ARTHUR F. *Early Yorkshire Schools*. Vol. II (Record Series, vol. XXXIII, Yorkshire Archaeological Society, 1903). Leeds: Whitehead, 1903. Sources in Latin, English, and Greek. From the twelfth to the eighteenth centuries. The Greek sources are also given in English translation. Historical introduction.
423. LEACH, ARTHUR F. *Educational Charters and Documents, 598 to 1909*. Cambridge: University Press, 1911. Original sources in Latin and in English translation. Valuable for research on educational history in England.
424. LEACH, ARTHUR F. *English Schools at the Reformation, 1546-8*. Westminster: Constable, 1896. About two-thirds of the volume consists of commission reports and extracts from certificates and warrants under the Chantries Acts of Henry VIII and Edward VI. The Latin sources are not translated.
425. LEWIS, ELMER A., compiler. *Laws Relating to Vocational Education and Agricultural Extension Work*. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1941. Full texts of laws, 1914-40.
426. LITTLEFIELD, GEORGE E. *Early Schools and School-Books of New England*. Boston: The Club of Odd Volumes, 1904. Essays on education in New England during the seventeenth century. Contains facsimiles of title and other pages of schoolbooks published or used in New England during that period.
427. MCGUCKEN, WILLIAM J. *The Jesuits and Education*. Milwaukee, Wis.: Bruce, 1932. Includes selections in English from the *Ratio Studiorum* dealing with the "lower" (secondary) schools, pp. 271-315.

428. MANN, MARY P. *Life of Horace Mann*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1937. A facsimile of the 1865 edition. Most of this volume consists of letters written by the famous American educator.

429. MARTZ, VELORUS, and SMITH, HENRY L. *Source Material Relating to the Development of Education in Indiana*. Bloomington: Bureau of Cooperative Research and Field Service, Indiana University, 1945. Ordinances of 1785 and 1787, legislative resolutions and acts, extracts from legislative journal, letters, petitions, and other documents, nearly all dating from the eighteenth century. Historical introduction.

430. MERIWETHER, COLYER. *Our Colonial Curriculum 1606-1776*. Washington, D. C.: Capital Publishing Co., 1907. The text includes documents relating to courses of study in colonial schools and colleges.

431. MERTZ, GEORG. *Das Schulwesen der deutschen Reformation im 16. Jahrhundert*. Heidelberg: Winter, 1902. The 200-page appendix contains Lutheran church and school ordinances of the sixteenth century. The text proper includes a biographical directory of educators and a chronological list of schools.

432. MONROE, PAUL. *Readings in the Founding of the American Public School System*. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University Microfilms, 1940. A mass of documentary material on microfilm illustrating the history of American education until the Civil War. Copies are deposited (as of 1940) in libraries throughout the country and Canada, e.g., University of California (Berkeley and Los Angeles), Yale, Illinois State Normal University, New York University, University of Toronto, University of Texas, Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College, and elsewhere. Copies are also available (as of 1940) in the public libraries of Denver, Atlanta, Des Moines, Baltimore, Boston, New York, Rochester, Pittsburgh. This is the only source collection in the field of educational history that has thus far been reproduced on microfilm.

433. MONROE, PAUL. *Source Book of the History of Education for the Greek and Roman Period*. New York: Macmillan, 1901. Selections at some length from Plutarch, Thucydides, Plato, Xenophon, Aristophanes, Isocrates, Aristotle, Cicero, Suetonius, Plautus, Tacitus, Quintilian, and others in English translation. Historical introductions.

434. MONROE, PAUL. *Stereopticon Views in the History of Education*. New York: The Author, 1915. A description of 400 slides, most of them primary illustrations and remains, in the history of education, from primitive times to the twentieth century.

435. MORGAN, JOY E. *Horace Mann at Antioch*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1938. Contains collegiate addresses and sermons by Horace Mann, pp. 189-428. A briefly annotated bibliography of primary sources, pp. 569-99.

436. MORISON, SAMUEL E. *Harvard College in the Seventeenth Century*. 2 vols. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1936. Sources

appear in the appendix and throughout the text. Especially noteworthy are the titles of the Latin commencement theses.

437. MÜLLER, JOHANNES. *Quellenschriften und Geschichte des deutschsprachlichen Unterrichts bis zur Mitte des 16. Jahrhunderts.* (Band IV, C. Kehr, editor. *Geschichte der Methodik des deutschen Volkschulunterrichtes.*) Cotha: Thienemann, 1882. Latin and Greek sources on the history of the teaching of the German language from the eleventh to the sixteenth centuries. Textual and historical notes.

438. MÜLLER, JOHANNES, editor. *Vor- und frühreformatorische Schulordnungen und Schulvorträge in deutscher und niederländischer Sprache.* 2 vols. Zschopau: Raschke, 1885-86. School regulations and contracts in German and Dutch, 1296-1523. This collection is part of August Israel and Johannes Müller, editors, *Sammlung selten gewordener pädagogischer Schriften früherer Zeiten.*

439. MUNRO, DANA C. *The Mediaeval Student.* Philadelphia: King, 1895. Source materials on university life in the middle ages.

440. NORTON, ARTHUR O. *Readings in the History of Education: Mediaeval Universities.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1909. Source materials on various aspects of higher education in the middle ages. Running commentary by the author.

441. NORTON, ARTHUR O. *The First State Normal School in America: The Journals of Cyrus Peirce and Mary Swift.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1926. In addition to the journals, the collection includes other documents on the early history of normal schools in Massachusetts.

442. PAINTER, F. V. N. *Great Pedagogical Essays: Plato to Spencer.* New York: American Book Co., 1905. Long selections from Plato, Aristotle, Xenophon, Cicero, Seneca, Quintilian, Plutarch, Jerome, Luther, Montaigne, Fénelon, Kant, Mann, et al. Brief biographical sketches.

443. PAINTER, F. V. N. *Luther on Education.* Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society, 1889. Translations of two educational works by Luther.

444. PETERSON, HOUSTON, editor. *Great Teachers.* New Brunswick, N. J.: Rutgers University Press, 1946. Accounts of Mark Hopkins, Charles E. Garman, Woodrow Wilson, John Dewey, William James, Ralph Waldo Emerson, and other teachers by their former students. The authors include Helen Keller, John Stuart Mill, Christopher Morley, and James Russell Lowell. Brief bibliographical prefaces.

445. PRINZ, PETER. *Zeitgenössische Pädagogen: Strömungen und Strebungen.* Second edition. Paderborn: Schöningh, 1921. Passages from the works of twentieth-century German educators: Willmann, Meumann, Paulsen, Kerschensteiner, Gurlitt, Natorp, et al. Biographical and bibliographical data in the appendix.

446. RASSFELD, KARL and WENDT, HERMANN. *Grundriss der Pädagogik.* Fourth edition. Leipzig: Teubner, 1918. About 100 pages of extracts

from St. Augustine, Luther, Ratke, Comenius, Francke, Fénelon and Rousseau (in French), Locke (in English), Basedow, Salzmann, Pestalozzi, and Herbart, and others. Some school laws are also included.

447. REU, JOHANN M., editor. *Quellen zur Geschichte des kirchlichen Unterrichts in der evangelischen Kirche Deutschlands zwischen 1530 und 1600*. 3 vols. in 8. Gütersloh: Bertelsmann, 1904-35. German, Latin, and Dutch sources for the teaching of catechism, Bible, and other phases of Lutheran religious education during the sixteenth century in all parts of Germany. The most thorough collection of its kind. Historical introduction and bibliography by the editor.

448. RICKERT, EDITH, compiler. *Chaucer's World*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1948. Sources on education in England during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, pp. 94-136. Translated from Latin and Old French and modernized from the Middle English.

449. ROBINSON, JAMES H., and ROLFE, HENRY W. *Petrarch: The First Modern Scholar and Man of Letters*. New York: Putnam, 1898. Contains translations from Petrarch's Latin letters and a lengthy biographical study. A good source for research in education during the Renaissance.

450. ROSELLO, P. *Les précurseurs du Bureau International d'Education*. Geneva: Bureau International, d'Education, 1943. The appendix gives the texts of some documents and extracts from others dealing with the history of international education. A few of these sources appear in English in the appendix of P. Rossello, *Forerunners of the International Bureau of Education* (translated by Marie Butts, London, University of London Institute of Education, 1944).

451. SARMIENTO, DOMINGO F. *Ideas pedagogicas*. Buenos Aires: Consejo Nacional de Educación, 1938. Extracts from various educational writings by the Argentine reformer. Sources are indicated. Subject index.

452. SCHEVILL, FERDINAND. *The First Century of Italian Humanism*. New York: Crofts, 1928. Comprises selections from the educational writings of Petrarch, Boccaccio, Bruni, Vergerio, Aeneas Silvius, Piccolomini (Pope Pius II), and Battista Guarino. Good for the study of education during the Renaissance.

453. SEYBOLT, ROBERT F. *Source Studies in American Colonial Education: The Private School*. University of Illinois, College of Education, Bureau of Educational Research, Bulletin No. 28. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1925. Various types of documentary evidence dealing with this period.

454. SEYBOLT, ROBERT F., translator. *The Manuale Scholarium*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1921. An interesting source for the history of student life in the German universities of the later middle ages. Translated into colloquial English. Historical introduction.

455. SEYBOLT, ROBERT F. *The Private Schools of Colonial Boston*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1935. Texts of school announce-

ments taken from newspapers, 1706-76. Introductory historical essay and a brief commentary.

456. SEYBOLT, ROBERT F. *The Public Schools of Colonial Boston, 1635-1775*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1935. Sources are quoted at some length.

457. SKINNER, HUBERT M. *The Schoolmaster in Literature*. New York: American Book Co., 1892. Extracts from the works of Ascham, Molière, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Goethe, Thackeray, Dickens, George Eliot, Irving, Eggleston, *et al.* Good for research on the treatment of education in fictional literature.

458. SMALL, WALTER H. *Early New England Schools*. Boston: Ginn, 1914. The text cites extracts from many official documents of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Exact sources are not given. Useful for many topics in elementary and secondary education in New England.

459. SMITH, HENRY L., EATON, MERRILL T., and DUGDALE, KATHLEEN. *One Hundred Fifty Years of Arithmetic Textbooks*. Bloomington: Bureau of Cooperative Research and Field Service, Indiana University, 1945. Facsimile pages and numerous extracts from textbooks used in American schools since the late eighteenth century.

460. SMITH, HENRY L., *et al.* *One Hundred Fifty Years of Grammar Textbooks*. Bloomington: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1946. Facsimile pages and many extracts from grammar textbooks used in American schools since the late eighteenth century.

461. SPERBER, E., editor. *Pädagogische Lesestücke*. Second edition. 5 vols. Gütersloh: Bertelsmann, 1899-1909. Excerpts from educational writings from the Greek period to the beginning of the twentieth century.

462. SYMONDS, JOHN A. *Wine, Women and Song*. Portland, Me.: Mosher, 1918. Medieval students' songs translated from the Latin.

463. *The Schoolmaster: Essays on Popular Education*. 2 vols. London: Knight, 1836. Analytical accounts of Ascham's *Schoolmaster* and Locke's *Some Thoughts concerning Education*, as well as writings on education by John Milton, Francis Wayland, Bishop Butler, and others.

464. *The Schoolmaster in Comedy and Satire*. New York: American Book Co., 1894. Selections from the works of Rabelais, Ascham, Shakespeare, Fénelon, Swift, Pope, Edgeworth, Dickens, Gogol, *et al.* Biographical introductions.

465. THORNDIKE, LYNN. *University Records and Life in the Middle Ages*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1944. This valuable collection of source materials sheds light on all aspects of medieval higher education.

466. TURNBULL, G. H. *Hartlib, Dury and Comenius*. Liverpool: University Press, 1947. Correspondence by and to Samuel Hartlib, John Dury, and John Amos Comenius, and other previously unpublished

documents on English education in the seventeenth century. The Latin and French sources are untranslated.

467. TURNBULL, G. H. *The Educational Theory of J. G. Fichte*. Liverpool: University Press, 1926. Translations, pp. 119-283, of various educational writings by Fichte, with special emphasis on universities.

468. ULLICH, ROBERT. *A Sequence of Educational Influences*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1935. A reprint of five previously unpublished letters, the originals of which are in the Harvard College Library. The writers of the letters are Pestalozzi, Froebel, Diesterweg, Horace Mann, and Henry Barnard. Dr. Ullich offers the three German letters in the original and in translation. He also establishes the interrelationship of the five letters by an appropriate historical commentary.

469. ULLICH, ROBERT. *Three Thousand Years of Educational Wisdom*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1947. An anthology of educational thought from the literature of various nations and ages. There are selections from the Bhagavad-Gita, Lao-Tse, Confucius, Plutarch, the Bible, St. Augustine, Gerson, Ibn Khaldoun, Descartes, Franklin, Jefferson, and Emerson, as well as from the writings of educators more frequently included in source books. Short bibliographical introductions.

470. VORMBAUM, REINHOLD, editor. *Evangelische Schulordnungen*. 3 vols. Gütersloh: Bertelsmann, 1860-64. Latin and German texts of Evangelical Lutheran school regulations, 1528-1773. Vol. III contains the regulations of the Francke schools.

471. WADDELL, HELEN. *The Wandering Scholars*. London: Constable, 1927. The Latin originals and English translations of medieval student lyrics.

472. WHITCOMB, MERRICK. *A Literary Source-Book of the Renaissance*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1903. Passages from Petrarch, Alberti, Aeneas Silvius Piccolomini, Castiglione, Agricola, Wimpfeling, and other Italian and German Renaissance educators.

473. WOODWARD, WILLIAM H. *Desiderius Erasmus Concerning the Aim and Method of Education*. Cambridge: University Press, 1904. Part II is made up of translations of excerpts from four works by Erasmus. The main part of the volume presents a biography and analysis of Erasmus' educational ideas.

474. WOODWARD, WILLIAM H. *Vittorino da Feltre and Other Humanist Educators*. Cambridge: University Press, 1905. English translations of the educational treatises by Vergerio, Bruni, Aeneas Silvius Piccolomini, and Battista Guarino. Historical introduction.

475. WOODY, THOMAS, editor. *Educational Views of Benjamin Franklin*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1931. Extracts from educational writings by Franklin. A biographical account is included.

476. WOODY, THOMAS. *Quaker Education in the Colony and State of New Jersey: A Source Book*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1923. Extensive quotations from sources dating from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Running comments by the author.
477. WORDSWORTH, CHRISTOPHER. *Scholae academicae*. Cambridge: University Press, 1877. Contains sources in Latin and English on the curriculum of the eighteenth-century English universities.
478. YOUNG, ROBERT F., editor. *Comenius in England*. London: Oxford University Press, 1932. Translations, with introductory and explanatory comment, of documents relating to Comenius' visit to England (1641-42). Includes letters and other writings by Comenius, Samuel Hartlib, and John Dury. Useful for research on Comenius, history of education in England, and history of the education of Indians in the United States.
479. ZIEBARTH, ERICH, compiler. *Aus der antiken Schule*. Bonn: Marcus and Weber, 1910. A collection of Greek school exercises found on papyrus, tablets, and shells. Explanatory comment in German by the compiler.

There are numerous collections of source materials in the history of higher medieval education, but most of them have not been translated from the Latin. These are essential to any program of systematic and thorough research in this area. Those who can read Latin will wish to use such documentary volumes as: *Chartularium studii bononiensis* (University of Bologna), *Chartularium universitatis Parisiensis* (University of Paris), *Statuta antiqua universitatis Oxoniensis* (Oxford), and *Monumenta historica universitatis pragensis* (University of Prague). Descriptions of these and similar collections may be found in the bibliography in Pearl Kibre, *The Nations in the Mediaeval Universities* (Cambridge, Mass.: Mediaeval Academy of America, 1948).

The source books described in the previous pages do not represent all of the collections that might be consulted while doing research. Students will undoubtedly locate additional compilations, particularly among the many volumes of readings in history, philosophy, sociology, anthropology, religion, and allied fields.

While source collections are very helpful in research, advanced students should not depend solely upon them. An effort should be made to gain access to complete, rather than fragmentary, sources. An alert researcher may obtain a better understanding of his problem

if he has an opportunity of examining the full context of a statement. He may also get suggestions or clues for the solution of some sub-problems in his research project.

It is quite difficult and time-consuming to wade through volumes in quest of some elusive educational expression. Elementary students desiring to study the thinking and influence of a great educator are likely to get quickly discouraged when they discover the vast amount of published material they have to read. Fortunately, there are keys to several of the classics. Thus, students working on some aspects of Plato's educational thought might consult Evelyn Abbott, *A Subject-Index to the Dialogues of Plato* (Oxford: Clarendon, 1875). This is an index to the Stephens edition of Plato's works. The headings of "children," "education," "idea," "ignorance," "knowledge," "music," and the like will lead the student to the pertinent passages in Plato's work. A similar reference work to Aristotle's writings has recently been published. Troy W. Organ's *An Index to Aristotle in English Translation* (Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1949) is a classified guide to the English translation of Aristotle edited by W. D. Ross and J. A. Smith (London: Oxford University Press, 1908-31, 11 vols.). Here, too, the student may look under "education," "children," and similar captions.

These indexes, understandably enough, facilitate the work of research in the educational philosophy of Plato and Aristotle, or in that of any other thinker for whose writings similar indexes have been prepared. The only fly in the ointment is that the library in which the student is pursuing his studies must own the indexes and the particular editions of the classics to which they refer.

Yearbooks

Articles dealing specifically with educational history and reports which are now of historical interest are found in the *Educational Yearbooks*, of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University. Edited by I. L. Kandel and published between 1925 and 1944, these yearbooks present data on education in foreign countries and in the United States as compiled and interpreted by native

specialists. These volumes are of value for research in twentieth-century education and on problems having their roots in previous centuries. Perhaps the most useful issues, from the standpoint of systematic presentation, are those prepared for the years 1929 and 1941. The earlier volume provides an exposition of the philosophical foundations underlying the educational systems of England, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, and the United States. The latter issue, written entirely by Dr. Kandel, offers a summary and interpretation of the international educational forces of the years leading up to World War II. These yearbooks are no longer being published.

Another valuable yearbook, which resumed publication in 1948 after a long period of wartime interruption, is *The Year Book of Education*, issued in England under the editorship of G. B. Jefferey and his colleagues. There are numerous similarities between the British and the American series of yearbooks. The 1948 issue is concerned with the effect of the war on education throughout the world.

Special Chapters on Educational History

Many historical books and general works in education contain chapters dealing with phases of educational history. Students will find many of these quite useful. Below are some examples of such books:

480. ABBOT, EVELYN, editor. *Hellenica*. London: Rivington, 1880. Richard L. Nettleship, "The Theory of Education in the Republic of Plato," pp. 67-180.

481. ASGIS, ALFRED J. *Professional Dentistry in American Society*. New York: Clinical Press, 1941. Six chapters surveying the history of dental education in America, pp. 56-98.

482. BARON, SALO W. *The Jewish Community*. Vol. II. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America, 1942. Chapter XIII, "Education and Public Enlightenment," treats Jewish education from the middle ages to the eighteenth century (pp. 169-207). Footnotes and bibliography in Vol. III. See also the index in Vol. III.

483. BEVAN, EDWYN R., and SINGER, CHARLES, editors. *The Legacy of Israel*. Oxford: Clarendon, 1927. Includes the scholarly essays, "Hebrew Scholarship in the Middle Ages among the Latin Christians," by Charles Singer, and "Hebrew Studies in the Reformation Period and After," by G. H. Box.

484. BOND, HORACE M. *The Education of the Negro in the American Social Order*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1934. Nine chapters comprising a documented survey of the history of Negro education in the United States since the Civil War, pp. 9-187.
485. CHURCH, LESLIE F. *The Early Methodist People*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1949. Chapter VI, "Their Family Life and Their Children," is a carefully documented account of Methodist education in England during the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.
486. CLARK, G. N. *The Seventeenth Century*. Second edition. Oxford: Clarendon, 1947. Chapter ,XVIII, "Education," pp. 288-305. For other references to education, see the table of contents; the index does not contain an entry, "Education."
487. COULTER, E. MERTON. *The South During Reconstruction: 1865-1877*. New Orleans: Louisiana State University Press, 1947, Chapter XV, "Schools and Churches," is well documented with primary sources.
488. COULTON, G. G. *Medieval Panorama*. Cambridge: University Press, 1938. Chapters on "Chivalry," "Monastery," "Cloister Life," "From School to University," and others are helpful in understanding the educational history of England during the Middle Ages.
489. DIFFIE, BAILEY W. *Latin-American Civilization: Colonial Period*. Harrisburg, Pa.: Stackpole, 1945. Chapter 23, "The Development of Education and the Diffusion of Culture," pp. 492-513. Additional educational data in chapters 24-25 and elsewhere. Documentation from primary sources. Useful for research on history of education in Latin-America.
490. FOWLER, GEORGE B. *Intellectual Interests of Engelbert of Admont*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1947. Chapter VI, "Education and Moral Ideals," is useful for the history of education in medieval Austria. Other pertinent material may be found elsewhere in the book.
491. FUNG, YU-LAN. *A Short History of Chinese Philosophy*. New York: Macmillan, 1948. Chapters on Confucius, Mencius, Lao-Tse, and other Chinese educational philosophers.
492. GARNER, JAMES W., editor. *Studies in Southern History and Politics*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1914. William K. Boyd's "Some Phases of Educational History in the South since 1865" (pp. 259-87) treats public schools, higher education, and Negro education. Based on primary and secondary sources.
493. GRINSTEIN, HYMAN B. *The Rise of the Jewish Community of New York: 1654-1860*. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America, 1945. Chapter XII, "Education," is richly documented with primary source materials. See index for additional references to educational work.
494. HASKINS, CHARLES H. *Studies in Mediaeval Culture*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1929. Four chapters by an authority on mediaeval education: "Life of Mediaeval Students as Illustrated by Their

Letters"; "The University of Paris in the Sermons of the Thirteenth Century"; "Manuals for Students"; "The Spread of Ideas in the Middle Ages."

495. HASKINS, CHARLES H. *Studies in the History of Mediaeval Science*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1924. Chapter XVIII, "A List of Text-Books from the Close of the Twelfth Century" (pp. 356-76), is helpful for research in the history of higher medieval education.

496. HASKINS, CHARLES H. *The Renaissance of the Twelfth Century*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1927. Chapters on "Intellectual Centres," "Books and Libraries," "The Revival of the Latin Classics," and "The Beginnings of Universities." Excellent bibliographies follow these chapters.

497. HUEY, EDMUND B. *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading*. New York: Macmillan, 1908. Six chapters on the history of reading and of reading instruction, pp. 187-312.

498. JARRETT, BEDE. *Social Theories of the Middle Ages: 1200-1500*. Westminster, Md.: Newman Book Shop, 1926. Educational philosophy during the middle ages and the Renaissance, pp. 31-68.

499. LANNING, JOHN T. *Academic Culture in the Spanish Colonies*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1940. Contains two documented chapters on the history of the Spanish universities in the Western Hemisphere.

500. LEONARD, J. PAUL. *Developing the Secondary School Curriculum*. New York: Rinehart, 1946. Two chapters on the historical background of the American secondary school and its curriculum, pp. 3-72. Based chiefly on secondary sources.

501. NEWMARK, MAXIM, editor. *Twentieth Century Modern Language Teaching*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1948. Extracts from a dozen writings on various phases of the history of Modern-language teaching (pp. 1-86).

502. POOLE, REGINALD G. *Studies in Chronology and History*. Oxford: Clarendon, 1934. Chapter XV, "The Masters of the Schools at Paris and Chartres in John of Salisbury's Time" (reprinted from *English Historical Review*, XXXV, 1920). Helpful for research on education in the twelfth century.

503. POWICKE, F. M. *The Christian Life in the Middle Ages*. Oxford: Clarendon, 1935. Excellent chapters, "Medieval Education" (pp. 74-91) and "Some Problems in the History of the Medieval University" (pp. 92-106).

504. ROSS, C. C. *Measurement in Today's Schools*. Second edition. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1947. Chapter II, sketches the historical development of the measurement movement in education, pp. 27-64.

505. SMITH, PRESERVED. *A History of Modern Culture*. Vol. I. New York: Holt, 1930. Chapter XI, "Education," covers the period, 1543-1687 (pp. 315-55).

506. SMITH, PRESERVED. *A History of Modern Culture*. Vol. II, *The Enlightenment, 1687-1776*. New York: Holt, 1934. The history of universities, schools, and pedagogical theory during this period, pp. 402-49.
507. TAYLOR, CHARLES H., editor. *Anniversary Essays in Mediaeval History by Students of Charles Homer Haskins*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, 1929. Charles W. David, "The Claim of King Henry I to Be Called Learned"; Howard L. Gray, "Greek Visitors to England in 1455-1456"; Gaines Post, "Alexander III, the 'Licentia Docendi', and the Rise of the Universities"; and other essays.
508. WERTENBAKER, THOMAS J. *The Puritan Oligarchy: The Founding of American Civilization*. New York: Scribner, 1947. Chapter V, "The Liberals Seize the Ferule," deals with education in Massachusetts during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Based on primary and secondary sources.
509. WESLEY, EDGAR B. *Teaching the Social Studies*. Second edition. Boston: Heath, 1942. Sketches of the history of the teaching of the various social studies, pp. 175-227.

THE BACKGROUND MATERIAL OF THE REPORT

No matter how precisely the research problem has been defined, it cannot be studied by itself, in a vacuum so to speak. Each educational idea or practice has some relationship to the time during which it originated. Thus, the demand for religious instruction in the American public schools is not understandable without reference to contemporary American society, religion, and family life. The study of the secondary curriculum in Nazi Germany is meaningless without an examination of the political and social conditions prevailing in that country.

Accordingly, the student should read some background material and make use of it in the preparation of his report. Here again, as in the research work on the educational problem itself, he may obtain good information in encyclopedias and in textbooks. But care must be exercised in the selection of background materials, since many textbooks and other summaries of knowledge tend toward brevity, excessive generalization, and oversimplification. After all, if one is to correlate the results of his research with the context of the problem,

he must show some discrimination in choosing the sources of his background knowledge.

Some students, in their haste to complete their project, take hold of the most convenient historical book at home. This is likely to be the review or cram book they used in high-school days, or else their college review book. Although these materials may have been prepared by competent individuals, the information they offer is generally too compressed and too barely factual to be of any value. The same thing might be said of the high-school textbook. It may seem queer to some students that this point is raised in a manual of this type. Experience has shown, however, that even graduate students sometimes fail to distinguish between the scholarly and the superficial, as far as these background readings are concerned.

Better than any of the types mentioned is the good college textbook in history. But even here one ought to draw proper distinctions. Undoubtedly most history teachers will agree on the usefulness of a general survey of world civilization, such as those by Lynn Thorndike, Hutton Webster, or Henry S. Lucas. Yet these are somewhat too broad for a student writing on ancient Greek education. A textbook such as Wallace E. Caldwell's *The Ancient World* will probably be more satisfactory. Even better would be a textbook dealing exclusively with Greece, e.g., G. W. Botsford's *Hellenic History*. Similarly, for work in American educational history, a paper on colonial schools would be more properly supported by reference to Curtis P. Nettels' *The Roots of American Civilization* or Oliver P. Chitwood's *A History of Colonial America* than to Harold U. Faulkner's *American Political and Social History*. On some topics the best background information may be derived from a monograph.

Whatever applies to textbooks in general history is also applicable to background materials in educational history. A fuller and more reliable presentation of early Negro education may be derived from Carter G. Woodson's *The Education of the Negro Prior to 1861*, than from any textbook on the history of American education. Since the latter type of book usually bases its passages dealing with Negro education on the Woodson and similar studies, then it might be

78 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

assumed that the careful student will find the specialized textbook to be more reliable than the general volume. Textbook authors make relatively rare use of the ultimate stuff of which history is made (see Chapter V).

It is a good practice not to rely upon a single textbook—whatever the type—for historical background. Comparison of at least two texts gives the student a better and more accurate portrait of an era than merely the examination of a single volume. The checking of background readings against one another is bound to raise the quality of one's research.

CHAPTER IV

Aids in the Writing of History

This chapter describes a number of works on the nature and writing of history, general and educational. These aid the student in getting an orientation in the techniques of historical research. The application of these processes of historiography will be outlined, with special reference to education, in the next chapter.

GENERAL HISTORY

Historiography

510. BAUER, WILHELM. *Einführung in das Studium der Geschichte*. Second edition. Tübingen: Mohr, 1928. The philosophy of history and a detailed description of the historical method—sources, criticism, exposition. Many bibliographies are included.

511. BERNHEIM, ERNST. *Einleitung in die Geschichtswissenschaft*. Berlin: Göschen, 1912. An abridgement of the following volume.

512. BERNHEIM, ERNST. *Lehrbuch der historischen Methode und der Geschichtsphilosophie*. Fifth and sixth edition. Leipzig: Duncker and Humblot, 1908. The nature and methodology of historical research. This basic work has served as model for manuals in other languages.

513. CRUMP, C. G. *History and Historical Research*. London: Routledge, 1928. Includes discussions on choice of research topic, search for and evaluation of sources, note-taking, and historical synthesis.

514. CRUMP, C. G. *The Logic of History*. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, 1919. The process of historical criticism and exposition.

515. CURTI, MERLE, chairman. *Theory and Practice in Historical Study*. Bulletin 54. New York: Social Science Research Council, 1946. A re-examination of historical methodology and its underlying foundations by historians and philosophers. An excellent, classified bibliography on the method and philosophy of history.

516. DOW, EARLE W. *Principles of a Note-System for Historical Studies*. New York: Century, 1924. The standard work on the technique of taking notes in historical research.
517. FLING, FRED M. *The Writing of History*, New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1920. A practical introduction to the historical method. Discusses choice of subject; collection, classification and criticism of source materials; establishment and synthesis of the facts; and synthesis. Examples are drawn mainly from the French Revolution.
518. GARRAGHAN, GILBERT J. *A Guide to Historical Method*. New York: Fordham University Press, 1946. A manual of theory and practice. Excellent bibliographical references.
519. GEORGE, H. B. *Historical Evidence*. Oxford: Clarendon, 1909. Treats the nature of historical evidence, the criticism of source materials, the inaccuracies of historians, and historical generalizations.
520. GOTTSCHALK, LOUIS, KLUCKHOHN, CLYDE, and ANGELL, ROBERT. *The Use of Personal Documents in History, Anthropology and Sociology*. Bulletin 53. New York: Social Science Research Council, 1945. Analysis and evaluation of historical documents by Dr. Gottschalk.
521. HOCKETT, HOMER C. *Introduction to Research in American History*. Revised edition. New York: Macmillan, 1948. A standard guide to all phases of historical research, with examples drawn from American history. Excellent bibliography.
522. JOHNSON, ALLEN. *The Historian and Historical Evidence*. New York: Scribner, 1926. Discusses sources of information, evaluation of evidence, and the use of hypotheses.
523. JOHNSON, CHARLES. *The Mechanical Processes of the Historian*. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, 1922. Suggestions for the preparation of an historical report. Not much on the historical method proper.
524. KENT, SHERMAN. *Writing History*. New York: Crofts, 1941. Excellent suggestions on the preparation of a research report in history. Includes a well-annotated bibliography. The historical method is presented too concisely.
525. KLEIN, FREDERIC S. *Research Methods in History*. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Edwards Bros., 1940. Emphasis on the collection of data and on the criticism of statements.
526. LANGLOIS, CHARLES V. and SEIGNOBOS, CHARLES. *Introduction to the Study of History*. London: Duckworth, 1898. A widely-used manual which probes deeply into historical methodology. A translation by G. G. Berry of the *Introduction aux études historiques* (Paris, 1898).
527. MARSHALL, R. L. *The Historical Criticism of Documents*. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, 1920. A short treatise on the processes of external and internal criticism.
528. MORIZE, ANDRÉ. *Problems and Methods of Literary History*. Boston: Ginn, 1922. A careful study of criticism of sources, authenticity,

and other phases of historical methodology, with special reference to modern French literature. There is an excellent chapter on the determination of the influence of one man's ideas upon another.

529. NEVINS, ALLAN. *The Gateway to History*. New York: Heath, 1938. A well-written work on evidence and other aspects of the historical method. Includes discussion of the relationship of history to other fields. Extensive bibliography.

530. O'BRIEN, LOUIS. *The Writing of History*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1935. Adapted from Paul Harsin's *Comment on écrit l'histoire*. A brief treatment of the search for sources, documentary criticism, and historical synthesis.

531. OMAN, CHARLES. *On the Writing of History*. New York: Dutton, 1939. Essays on the meaning of historical research. Special attention to the principles of the criticism of source materials.

532. RICE, STUART A., editor. *Methods in Social Science*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. Contains critical analyses of the historical methodology of Frederick J. Turner by Merle E. Curti; Henri Pirenne and Georg von Below, by Carl Stephenson; Sidney B. Fay, by William L. Langer; Jules Michelet, by Henry E. Bourne; Ernest Renan, by Jean Pommier; Ernst Troeltsch, by Francis A. Christie; Voltaire, by Ferdinand Schevill; and a general analysis of method, by Henri Pirenne.

533. SALMON, LUCY M. *The Newspaper and Historical Evidence*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1923. A specialized treatment of one type of documentation.

534. SCOTT, ERNEST. *History and Historical Problems*. Melbourne: Oxford University Press, 1925. Discusses the method of historical research and its relationship to other fields.

535. VINCENT, JOHN M. *Aids to Historical Research*. New York: Appleton-Century, 1934. A brief introduction to useful materials in the preparation of a research report.

536. VINCENT, JOHN M. *Historical Research*. New York: Holt, 1911. A detailed discussion of historical methodology, together with analyses of the auxiliary sciences—chronology, paleography, and sigillography. Special attention is given to the determination of authorship.

The Philosophy of History

Advanced students may wish to become familiar with the foundations of historical thinking. The following volumes offer various viewpoints which, in most cases, are discernible in the titles.

537. ARON, RAYMOND. *Introduction à la philosophie de l'histoire*. Paris: Gallimard, 1938. A clearly written introduction to all phases of the subject.

82 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

538. BEARD, CHARLES A. *The Discussion of Human Affairs*. New York: Macmillan, 1936. The application of historiography to human affairs.
539. BECKER, CARL L. *Everyman His Own Historian*. New York: Crofts, 1935. An interesting series of essays setting forth a famous historian's views. Includes evaluation of other interpretations.
540. BOBER, M. M. *Karl Marx's Interpretation of History*. Second edition. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1948. A well-documented, objective presentation of Marx's materialistic conception of history.
541. BUKHARIN, NIKOLAI. *Theorie des historischen Materialismus*. Translated from the Russian by Frida Rubiner. Hamburg: Verlag der kommunistischen Internationale, 1922. Historical materialism from the Communist standpoint.
542. BURY, J. B. *The Idea of Progress*. New York: Macmillan, 1932. A famous work dealing with the principles of history.
543. CASE, SHIRLEY J. *The Christian Philosophy of History*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943. A spiritual interpretation.
544. CHEYNEY, EDWARD P. *Law in History*. New York: Knopf, 1927. Essays on the problems of historical synthesis.
545. COHEN, MORRIS R. *The Meaning of Human History*. LaSalle, Ill.: Open Court Publishing Co., 1947. An incisive study of the various social and philosophical approaches to history.
546. COLLINGWOOD, R. G. *The Idea of History*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1946. An analysis of the interpretation of history from Greek times to the present.
547. CROCE, BENEDETTO. *History as the Story of Liberty*. Translated by Sylvia Sprigge. New York: Norton, 1941. Views on history by a famous Italian philosopher.
548. CROCE, BENEDETTO. *History: Its Theory and Practice*. Translated by Douglas Ainslie. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1921. The philosophy and history of history.
549. EINSTEIN, LEWIS. *Historical Change*. Cambridge: University Press, 1946. An exposition of different views of historical change.
550. GUILDAY, PETER, editor. *The Catholic Philosophy of History*. New York: Kenedy, 1936. Essays on medieval and modern Catholic philosophers of history.
551. HEGEL, GEORG W. F. *The Philosophy of History*. Translated by J. Sibree. Revised edition. New York: Collier, 1900. Historical analysis by a famous German philosopher.
552. HULME, E. M. *History and Its Neighbors*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1942. The relationship of history to other scholarly disciplines.
553. KELLETT, E. E. *Aspects of History*. London: Cape, 1938. The relation of history to science, literature, and other fields.

554. LAMBERT, E. *The Apocalypse of History*. London: Oxford University Press, 1933. A brief discussion of history as a science, with special reference to the questions of certainty and impartiality.
555. MANDELBAUM, MAURICE. *The Problem of Historical Knowledge*. New York: Liveright, 1938. A critical analysis of historical relativism. An "attempt to overcome the widely current scepticism with which historical knowledge is regarded."
556. MATHEWS, SHAILER. *The Spiritual Interpretation of History*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1920. The Christian philosophy of history.
557. MEHLIS, GEORG. *Lehrbuch der Geschichtsphilosophie*. Berlin: Springer, 1915. A detailed textbook on the philosophy of history.
558. NEFF, EMERY. *The Poetry of History*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1947. The relationship of literary scholarship to historiography from Voltaire to Spengler.
559. NIEBUHR, REINHOLD. *Beyond Tragedy*. New York: Scribner, 1937. Analyzes the Christian interpretation of history.
560. NIEBUHR, REINHOLD. *Faith and History*. New York: Scribner, 1949. Compares Christian and modern interpretations of history.
561. NORDAU, MAX. *The Interpretation of History*. Translated by M. A. Hamilton. New York: Willey, 1910. A critique of various approaches to history.
562. ROBINSON, JAMES H. *The New History*. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Argues for the cultural and intellectual emphasis in history.
563. ROWSE, A. L. *The Use of History*. New York: Macmillan, 1948. An elementary discussion of the values of history.
564. SALMON, LUCY M. *Why Is History Rewritten?* New York: Oxford University Press, 1929. The theory of historiography.
565. SALVEMINI, GAETANO. *Historian and Scientist*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1939. Stresses the relationship of history to the social and natural sciences.
566. SELIGMAN, EDWIN R. A. *The Economic Interpretation of History*. Second edition. New York: Columbia University Press, 1924. A study of the role of economic forces in history.
567. STRAYER, JOSEPH R., editor. *The Interpretation of History*. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1943. Essays on various aspects of the meaning and method of history by Joseph R. Strayer, Jacques Barzun, Hajo Holborn, Herbert Heaton, Dumas Malone, and George LaPiana.
568. TAYLOR, HENRY O. *A Historian's Creed*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1939. Interpretation by a practicing historian.
569. TAYLOR, HUGH. *History as a Science*. London: Methuen, 1933. An examination of the interrelationship of history and science.

570. TEGGART, FREDERICK J. *Prolegomena to History*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1916. A rather involved treatment of the philosophy of history.
571. TEGGART, FREDERICK J. *Theory of History*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1925. The philosophy of history is approached by way of sociological analysis.
572. TEGGART, FREDERICK J. *The Processes of History*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1918. An advanced interpretation of the philosophy and method of history.
573. TODD, ARTHUR J. *Theories of Social Progress*. New York: Macmillan,, 1918. An exposition of sociological interpretations of history.
574. TOYNBEE, ARNOLD J. *A Study of History*. 6 vols. London: Milford, 1934-39. A lengthy analysis of historical evolution in the light of cyclical development.
575. WARE, CAROLINE F., editor. *The Cultural Approach to History*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1940. Essays by many specialists on various types of historical interpretation.
576. WHITEHEAD, ALFRED N. *Adventures of Ideas*. New York: Macmillan, 1933. An approach to history by a famous British philosopher.
577. WOODBRIDGE, FREDERICK J. E. *The Purpose of History*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1916. The philosophy of history from the standpoint of a philosopher.

A comprehensive, well-classified, up-to-date bibliography of the philosophy of history will be found in Ronald Thompson, "Selective Reading List on Historiography and Philosophy of History," pp. 141-63, in Merle Curti, chairman, *Theory and Practice in Historical Study: A Report of the Committee on Historiography*. (New York: Social Science Research Council, 1946).

The History of History

The changes in the techniques of historiography through the ages will probably interest some advanced students. They will find convenient summaries in several of the following volumes and more extended treatments in others.

578. BARNES, HARRY E. *A History of Historical Writing*. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1937. A detailed, though incomplete, survey of the development of historiography. At times this reads like a catalogue of names and books.

579. BASSETT, JOHN S. *The Middle Group of American Historians*. New York: Macmillan, 1917. A study of nineteenth century historical writing in America.

580. BLACK, JOHN B. *The Art of History*. London: Methuen, 1926. A critical examination of the historical techniques of Hume, Voltaire, Robertson, and Gibbon.
581. BURY, JOHN B. *The Ancient Greek Historians*. New York: Macmillan, 1909. Studies in Herodotus, Thucydides, and Polybius.
582. FERGUSON, WALLACE K. *The Renaissance in Historical Thought*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1948. A thorough analysis of five centuries of historical writing about the Renaissance.
583. FUETER, EDUARD. *Geschichte der neueren Historiographie*. Third edition. Edited by Dietrich Gerhard and Paul Sattler. Munich: Oldenbourg, 1936. A history of historiography since the Renaissance.
584. GARDNER, CHARLES S. *Chinese Traditional Historiography*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1938. An introduction to the Chinese historians.
585. GOOCH, GEORGE P. *History and Historians of the Nineteenth Century*. Second edition. London: Longmans, Green, 1913. An excellent study of European and American historiography.
586. HOWALD, ERNST. *Vom Geist antiker Geschichtsschreibung*. Munich: Oldenbourg, 1944. Analytical essays on Herodotus, Thucydides, Polybius, Caesar, Sallust, Livy, and Tacitus.
587. HUTCHINSON, WILLIAM T., editor. *The Marcus W. Jernegan Essays in American Historiography*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937. Articles by historical scholars evaluating the use of the historical method in America.
588. JAMESON, JOHN F. *The History of Historical Writing in America*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1891. Deals with the nineteenth-century historians.
589. KRAUS, MICHAEL. *A History of American History*. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1937. A detailed survey from the beginnings to the present.
590. LAISTNER, M. L. W. *The Greater Roman Historians*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1947. Documented studies of the historical method of Sallust, Livy, Tacitus, and others.
591. MAZOUR, ANATOLE. *An Outline of Modern Russian Historiography*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1939. An introduction to the Russian historians.
592. MEINECKE, FRIEDRICH. *Die Entstehung des Historismus*. Munich: Oldenbourg, 1936. Stresses the German historical writers.
593. MONOD, GABRIEL. *Les maîtres de l'histoire*. Third edition. Paris: Calmann-Levy, 1895. Studies in the methodology of great historians.
594. RITTER, MORITZ. *Die Entwicklung der Geschichtswissenschaft*. Munich: Oldenbourg, 1919. A survey of the history of historiography.
595. SCHMITT, BERNADOTTE E., editor. *Some Historians of Modern Europe*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. Evaluations of methodology in modern history.

596. SHOTWELL, JAMES T. *The History of History*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. Analyses of Greek, Roman, Jewish, and early Christian historiography.

597. THOMPSON, JAMES W. and HOLM, BERNARD J. *A History of Historical Writing*. 2 vols. New York: Macmillan, 1942. A comprehensive survey from ancient times to World War I. Some sections are brief and sketchy.

EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

Educational Historiography

Very little has been written on the application of the historical method of research to educational questions. The available literature on this topic consists chiefly of repetitions of the principles of general historiography. In most cases, the illustrative examples are taken from general history. The references given below reflect, in the main, these tendencies. The only reason that these titles are included here is to indicate to the student that they are of limited value to him. All too often, students looking for guidance in educational historiography take hold of a research manual without realizing that the historiographical discussion bears little relation to education.

598. ABELSON, HAROLD H. *The Art of Educational Research*. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1933. A brief sketch of the general historical method, pp. 85-96.

599. ALMACK, JOHN C. *Research and Thesis Writing*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1930. An essay on the historical method, with no application to educational problems, pp. 172-201.

600. AZARIAS, BROTHER (PATRICK F. MULLANY). *Essays Educational*. Chicago: McBride, 1896. The last essay is a sharp critique of the methods used in the educational history written by Gabriel Compayré. Also critical of the anti-Catholic bias exhibited by other writers in the field.

601. BISHOP, JOHN L. *The Historical Method of Research in Education*. Unpublished M. A. Thesis, Colorado State Teachers College. Greeley: Colorado State College of Education, 1935. A descriptive survey of 100 theses in education employing the historical method. This thesis does not include a study of how the historical method is applied to educational research.

602. CRAWFORD, CLAUDE C. *The Technique of Research in Education*. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1928. Includes a short, general treatment of the historical method, pp. 49-62, but offers specific suggestions on the determination of historical trends.

603. GOOD, CARTER V. *How to Do Research in Education*. Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1928. The chapter on the historical method lacks any references to education.
604. GOOD, CARTER V. "Some Problems of Historical Criticism and Historical Writing," *Journal of Negro Education*, XI, April, 1942, pp. 135-49. An essay on the elements of historiography, but without any application to educational problems.
605. GOOD, CARTER V., BARR, A. S., and SCATES, DOUGLAS E. *The Methodology of Educational Research*. New York: Appleton-Century, 1938. A substantial chapter, pp. 239-85, on the major types of historical research. Frequent references are made to education. The best treatment of this topic in any of the manuals on educational research.
606. GOOD, H. G. "Current Historiography in Education," *Review of Educational Research*, IX, December, 1939, pp. 456-59, 593-94. Describes briefly the new publications on the historical method, new reference books, and some leading studies in educational history. Quotes a long passage which summarizes the historical method.
607. GOOD, H. G. "Historical Research in Education," *Educational Research Bulletin*, IX, January 8, 1930, pp. 7-18; January 22, 1930, pp. 39-47; February 5, 1930, pp. 74-78. A good, brief discussion of the method of educational history, with a detailed example of how the method is applied.
608. GOOD, H. G. "Relations Between Historical and Scientific Research in Education," *Education*, LII, September, 1931, pp. 4-7. The interrelationship of science and history in the history of education.
609. GOOD, H. G. "The Possibilities of Historical Research," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXIX, October, 1935, pp. 126-30. Offers an example of how to apply the historical method to an educational problem.
610. HEUBAUM, ALFRED. "Die mittelalterlichen Handschriften in ihrer Bedeutung für die Geschichte des Unterrichtsbetriebes," *Mitteilungen der Gesellschaft für deutsche Erziehungs- und Schulgeschichte*, XV, 1905, pp. 1-6. A discussion of the significance of medieval manuscripts, especially textbooks, for the history of education.
611. MONROE, WALTER S., and ENGELHART, MAX D. *The Scientific Study of Educational Problems*. New York: Macmillan, 1936. A short description of the historical method, with reference to education, pp. 159-70. Includes a list of "typical historical educational research studies."
612. NIETZ, JOHN A. "The Contribution of an Analysis of Old School Textbooks to the History of Education in the United States," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXV, November, 1941, pp. 201-207. Shows how an analysis of textbooks can throw light on the educational history of a period.
613. REISNER, EDWARD H. "The History of Education as a Source of Fundamental Assumptions in Education," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XIV, September, 1928, pp. 378-84. The importance of

the history of education. A critique of several phases of the course in the history of education.

614. SMITH, HENRY L. *Educational Research: Principles and Practices*. Bloomington, Ind.: Educational Publications, 1944. A brief, general chapter on historical research, with virtually no application to education, pp. 110-22.

615. WHITNEY, FREDERICK L. *The Elements of Research*. Revised edition. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1942. A brief explanation of the historical method, with no application to education, pp. 187-204. Presents criteria and a check-list for evaluating historical reports.

616. WILLMANN, O. "Historische Pädagogik," pp. 396-402, in W. Rein, editor, *Encyklopädisches Handbuch der Pädagogik* (second edition, IV, Langensalza, Beyer, 1906). The history of the writing of educational history; values and functions of educational history.

617. WOODY, THOMAS. "Of History and Its Method," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XV, March, 1947, pp. 175-201. Covers the philosophy and method of general history, with examples taken from education. Includes concrete suggestions on the techniques of preparing and organizing a report. Extensive bibliography.

The History and Values of Educational History

The history of educational history has received scant attention in the literature. More has been written about the values of the history of education as a professional subject. Most textbooks on educational history devote several paragraphs or even a few pages to a discussion of the benefits accruable from the study of this field. Some notice has also been taken of the different interpretations of educational history.

618. ADAMSON, JOHN W. *A Guide to the History of Education*. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, 1920. The nature and extent of educational history, an outline of the history of English education, and a survey of the chief writings in educational history.

619. ALEXANDER, CARTER. *How to Locate Educational Information and Data*. Second edition. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Discusses the importance of educational history to the practical schoolman and offers suggestions on how to locate information on an historical problem.

620. ALMACK, JOHN C. "History of Education," pp. 62-76, in Stanford University Education Faculty, *The Challenge of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1937). Discusses the nature and uses of history and educational history. Suggestions for the study of educational history.

621. BURNHAM, WILLIAM H., and SUZZALLO, HENRY. *The History of Education as a Professional Subject*. New York: Teachers College,

Columbia University, 1908. The background and values of educational history; critical comments on the literature; neglected areas in the field; administrative status and organization of instruction in educational history.

622. COOK, H. MORELAND. *History of the History of Education as a Professional Study in the United States*. Unpublished Doctor of Pedagogy Thesis. New York: New York University, 1916.

623. HANSEN, ALLEN O. "Integrative Anthropological Method in History of Culture and Education," *Educational Forum*, I, March, 1937, pp. 361-78. An argument in behalf of the synthesis of the history of education and the history of culture.

624. HORNE, HERMAN H. "Teaching the History of Education in Colleges," Chapter XVII, in Paul Klapper, editor, *College Teaching* (Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1920). Discusses the values of the subject and the methods of teaching it.

625. KIEHLE, D. L. "The History of Education," *School Review*, IX, May, 1901, pp. 310-315. The values of the study of educational history.

626. KNIGHT, EDGAR W. "Historical Approach to Education," *High School Journal*, XII, March, 1929, pp. 101-7. The meaning and method of educational history.

627. KNIGHT, EDGAR W. "In Darkness Dwells," *School and Society*, Vol. 65, May 31, 1947, pp. 385-88. A vigorous defense of the values of the history of education.

628. LILGE, FREDERIC. "The Functionalist Fallacy and the History of Education," *School and Society*, Vol. 65, April 5, 1947, pp. 241-43. Defends the thesis that educational problems are better understood in their historical context. Shows the indispensability of educational history in teacher education.

629. MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR H. "Toward a New History of Education," *School and Society*, Vol. 63, January 26, 1946, pp. 57-60. Maintains that educational history must draw upon the content and methods of the other social sciences.

630. MONROE, PAUL. "Opportunity and Need for Research Work in the History of Education," *Pedagogical Seminary*, XVII, March, 1910, pp. 54-62. Suggests areas of desirable research.

631. MONROE, PAUL, and KANDEL, I. L. "History of Education," pp. 293-97, PAUL MONROE, editor, *A Cyclopedia of Education*, Vol. II (New York: Macmillan, 1912). Historical development of this field.

632. MOORE, ERNEST C. "The History of Education," *School Review*, XI, May, 1903, pp. 350-60. The cultural and practical values of educational history.

633. MULHERN, JAMES. "The Significance of the History of Education in the Education of Teachers," *Educational Outlook*, X, March, 1936, pp. 167-81. An extended treatment of the practical uses of the subject.

634. NORTON, ARTHUR O. "Scope and Aims of the History of Education," *Educational Review*, XXVII, May, 1904, pp. 443-55.
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CHAPTER V

Applying the Historical Method of Research to Education

It would be helpful, before examining in detail how the historical method is applied in educational research, to summarize the essential features of the method.

THE HISTORICAL METHOD

In brief, the historical method, as delineated by historiographers, is a process of determining the accuracy of statements made about events. It is obvious that a historian, that is, one who desires to write a reliable account of certain occurrences, is rarely in a position to describe direct observations of his own. Inasmuch as he must rely upon the testimony of others, he must make use of techniques to verify and evaluate those statements. The writing of history involves (1) the selection and delimitation of a research problem; (2) the accumulation, classification and criticism of source materials; (3) the consequent determination of the facts; (4) the formulation of tentative hypotheses to explain the facts; (5) and the synthesis and presentation of the facts in a logically organized form. The famous German historiographer, Ernst Bernheim, has summed up the historical method in the following key words: *Quellenkunde* (or *Heuristik*), the search for sources; *Kritik*, the criticism of the sources; *Interpretation*, the interrelationship of the sources; *Auffassung*, the hypothesis; and *Darstellung*, the presentation.

Classification of Sources

The selection and the delimitation of a research problem have been treated in previous chapters. Considerable attention has also been given in this guide to methods of locating source materials. Now that the sources have been gathered, the investigator must classify and examine them critically.

Sources may be classified as *primary* or *secondary*. A primary source may be in the form of oral testimony by a witness who was present at a given event, a document describing the event at first hand, tangible structures or implements, or tales and songs handed down from generation to generation. Such sources are sometimes called *original*, that is, *undervived*. Some historians like to break down the primary source into two main types: *records*, which are sources meant to convey information of some kind either for present purposes or for posterity; and *remains*, which are inanimate evidences of human society. Among the varied source materials which constitute *records* are songs, legends, paintings, photographs, films, recordings, laws, tax lists, charters, inscriptions, diaries, letters, wills, court decisions, genealogical accounts, chronicles, maps, annals, memoirs, books, newspapers, and the like. Remains are utensils, tools, houses, clothing, blank documents, etc. This classification is not rigid; there are some sources which may qualify as records and as remains. Thus, worn coins are considered remains, while legible coins are obviously records.

A secondary source, on the other hand, is a *derived* source, once removed from the first-hand material. It is usually a document which describes or discusses a primary source. An example of a secondary source is the paraphrase by a student of a lecture delivered in a college class. The professor's words do not appear in the original form, but rather in a version which is the product of another person's mind. But here again it will be seen that the terms *primary* and *secondary* are relative at best. The student's lecture notes may be *secondary* as far as the professor's ideas are concerned, but they are a *primary* source with respect to the life of the student or the

history of the college. The word *original* must be used with caution. It is by no means a synonym of *primary*, although many persons engaged in historical work appear to identify the two terms. Actually, the student's notes, in manuscript form, are *original* in that they are not copies of any document, but are not *primary* sources of the professor's ideas.

Both primary and secondary sources are important in historical research, although it stands to reason that the former are of greater significance for an authentic, representative account. The student should strive to obtain, as far as possible, primary data on which to base his solution of the research problem he has chosen. The secondary sources are helpful for providing background, provided they are based on primary sources. The value of a secondary source is directly proportional to the extent to which it has made use of primary sources. Thus, a secondary source may incorporate accurate quotations from a primary source and, to that extent, it assumes primary characteristics. Sources which are based upon secondary materials are termed *tertiary* and rank below the secondary, and so on down the line. More detailed analyses of the various types of sources in educational history will be made later in this chapter.

External and Internal Criticism

After collecting and classifying his source materials, the historian is prepared to subject them to a form of examination known as criticism, both *external* and *internal*. (In Biblical research, these types of criticism are respectively called *lower* and *higher*). External criticism is a process which seeks to determine the genuineness of documents, to answer the question: Is the source what it seems to be? It establishes *why*, *where*, *when*, *how*, and *by whom* the document was written. Furthermore, it distinguishes the original text from later printings and revised editions, from borrowings and interpretations, and from expurgated versions. The process of external criticism goes so far as to test the physical characteristics of a document—age and type of paper, watermark, ink and handwriting—to examine the proof-sheets of books and pamphlets in order to reveal printers'

errors, and to perform other operations to ensure that the document is a faithful representation of the original. An effort is made to identify the authorship, whether individual or multiple, on the basis of the writer's previous works, style, and other criteria. In passing, it may be remarked that knowledge of the author's name is not always a significant matter. The name of a writer who is not well known is less important for purposes of research than proof that an anonymous author was unbiased and accurate. The historian makes use of the so-called auxiliary sciences of history—paleography, epigraphy, diplomatics, philology, archeology, genealogy, chronology, paper chemistry, etc.—to assure himself that he has a genuine document, rather than a forgery. The utilization of most of these may be apparent, but philology requires a word of explanation. Philology, or the science of language in the broad sense, helps to reveal anachronisms in the style of a document. In this way, a source which was purportedly written during the eighteenth century may be proved, upon closer scrutiny, to have been fabricated a century later.

Internal criticism, on the other hand, undertakes to analyze the meaning of statements within the documents which have already been established as genuine, and to determine their accuracy and trustworthiness. It is clear that, after passing all tests of genuineness, a document may still contain mistakes of fact and errors of judgment. The historian, accordingly, attempts to find out the literal meaning of the various statements and then their actual meaning. Is the writer serious or satirical? Have there been any changes in the meaning of the text as a result of translation? Evidence is sought as to the writer's bias, illogical thinking, phobias, or other characteristics tending to vitiate his statements. Was the writer an eyewitness to the events he described? Did he use reliable sources? Under which circumstances did he compose his narrative? These tests of competence must be applied to all important statements if the historian wishes to make certain that he is applying the historical method correctly. It must not be forgotten that even competent writers are not infallible. Everyone is familiar with the experiments which proved that even scientists present different versions of what they had witnessed in common.

Memory plays tricks on most people. For these reasons it is essential to know if an author recorded his observations immediately after the event or some time later, if he had facilities for direct observation, and if he was indeed a careful, competent observer. In evaluating the testimony contained in a document, the historian is aided by the knowledge of the writer's reputation and by familiarity with his other works. Care must also be taken to study the writer's motivation, since some people are actuated by a desire to gain the goodwill of others or to injure another's reputation, with the result that distortion may occur.

Some historiographers subdivide the internal critical process into *positive* and *negative* criticism. By positive is meant the attempt to establish the precise meaning of the statements. Negative criticism refers to the historian's reasons, such as the writer's incompetence and bias, to doubt the statements' truthfulness.

The reader may have inferred that there is no hard and fast distinction between external and internal criticism. Some historians make it a practice of utilizing both simultaneously. The beginner, however, will find it more profitable to conclude the process of external criticism before embarking upon the internal. And speaking of the beginning student, it should be pointed out that not all of the tests of external and internal criticism are used in every investigation and for every source.

Determination of the Facts

The next step in the historical method is the establishment of the facts. Historians tend to accept as factual any incidental information contained in documents of earlier eras, whenever there are no grounds to suspect falsity or inaccuracy. Statements by reliable writers living in ancient times, or at any other period for which documentary evidence is sparse, are considered facts even though they cannot be subjected to the critical canons of historiography. In view of the fact that such statements, as in the case of Tacitus' description of Teutonic customs, are the only accounts extant, it becomes a matter of "take it or leave it," as Homer C. Hockett has expressed it. If it

should be necessary for the research worker to rely upon such statements, he should warn the reader that these statements do not represent verified fact, but that they are unsupported by other evidence. In such cases, it is good practice to insert a phrase such as "according to Cicero," "in the view of Comenius," "as Thucydides testifies," and the like.

Whenever there are several statements dealing with a given event, the historian must first apply the process of external-internal criticism and then compare them. If the statements have been written by at least two different observers, independently of each other in all respects, and they are in agreement in the significant details, then a fact may be said to have been established. It is also important to the determination of what is a fact to know that the independent assertions were written by individuals representing different backgrounds or affiliations. This test undoubtedly enhances the status of the fact, but it is not necessarily applicable in all instances. In events involving ideologies, naturally, statements by persons of opposing viewpoints are necessary before a fact may be ascertained with any degree of certainty.

It should not be assumed that the credibility of statements is in direct proportion to the number available. There are numerous examples of a dozen assertions which are equivalent to only one, because they so resemble each other, with virtually no deviation, as to leave the suspicion in the reader's mind that they were derived from a single source. The famed phrase, "Fifty million Frenchmen can't be wrong," does not apply, obviously, in historical research. Communication among the writers renders their testimony identical, for all practical purposes. Observations which are unlike in minor matters, such as phrasing, but which agree in all essential respects, are considered by historiographers to reflect independence.

After collating and reexamining the validated source materials, the student may note similarities and contradictions. If similar statements pass the tests for independence, they lead to the determination of facts; otherwise, they furnish proof that some sources may have been borrowed from others in the collection. Contradictory state-

ments may be reconciled if the conflict does not turn out to be real after study. However, where the assertions reflect real conflict and there is no basis for doubting their validity, then the historian must conclude that he possesses contradictory testimony. He cannot use these statements for any clear-cut generalization.

The method of verification described in the previous pages does not pretend to assure the acquisition of truth. The historian realizes that there is a chance for error even after all the critical tests have been applied. Nevertheless, he knows that there is a strong probability that truth was approached more closely by this historical procedure than by any other one. Certainly, the widespread use of imagination and the uncritical acceptance of source materials are not likely to bring the historian any closer to what had actually occurred. To be able to say that one has arrived at a factual judgment beyond reasonable doubt, after the meticulous application of the historical method, is tantamount to saying that one has rendered a judicial verdict, likewise beyond reasonable doubt, after an impartial examination and cross examination of all available testimony and evidence.

Interpretation of the Facts

The student has at his disposal a multiplicity of verified data. By themselves, these items have only limited meaning. In relationship to each other, however, the facts begin to take on significance. The interpretation of the facts, then, constitutes the next stage in the historiographical process. Speculation about the deeper and more universal meaning of the related facts leads to the formulation of hypotheses, that is, explanations designed to make order out of the chaos of facts. Of course, when the historian begins his work he is conscious of certain ideas and suppositions with regard to his research problem. As he accumulates more and more data, he extends or contracts his original hypothesis. He draws inferences and generalizations which remain tentative until he has completed his study. All hypotheses have to meet the tests of logical consistency and agreement with fact. If an hypothesis, for example, is based upon such fallacious reasoning as *post hoc, ergo propter hoc* and other logical

errors, then it is valueless. Similarly, the hypothesis which does not conform to observed facts can hardly be considered adequate. The historian must also be careful not to make his hypotheses too simple. Excessive generalizations and oversimplifications have weakened many an historical report.

The final step in the historical method, synthesis and presentation, will be treated later.

THE HISTORICAL METHOD IN EDUCATION

The foregoing pages have presented a brief outline of the historical method as practised by most historians. This method operates equally in educational as in general history. The stage is now set for a consideration of the application of the principles and practice of historiography to the problems of the history of education.

Primary Sources

The sources used in educational history may be classified in various categories: legislation, court decisions and records, school and educational records, newspapers and magazines, non-educational documents, and remains. Under legislation may be included laws, resolutions, and ordinances—federal, state, and local—constitutional provisions, and school and college charters. The Massachusetts Law of 1647, the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, the Morrill Act of 1862, and the charter of the College of New Jersey granted by the state legislature in 1746 are examples of this type of source. On their face, these legislative acts are primary sources and may be utilized as such. However, some investigators are able to locate the original bills, amendments, and other documents relating to the law-in-the-making. If these materials are available, the historian is in a better position to ascertain what were the original intentions of the framers of the acts.

1. **Laws.** It is important to realize that laws are indicative of an attempt by a legislative body to secure a certain type of action. Sometimes educational laws give recognition to prevailing practices. There is no guarantee that a law ordering the establishment of

schools, such as the Massachusetts Law of 1647, was actually enforced to the letter. Examination of court records and later laws reveals frequent non-compliance. The student should therefore be careful whenever he uses legislative acts as sources not to assume that the laws were obeyed.

Marcus W. Jernegan calls attention to the fact that the laws of colonial America were sometimes enacted by special committees appointed by the legislatures. He points out that school laws may be found in all sorts of places—in compilations of “colonial records,” in the session laws, and in the legislative journals. Students doing research in this field would do well to search for all official repositories of laws, since the available collections of colonial educational legislation omit many important school laws.

2. COURT DECISIONS AND RECORDS. These offer valuable primary material for research in educational history. Significant historical judgments include the Kalamazoo decision of 1874, the Dartmouth College Case of 1819, and the Oregon decision of 1925, the last two handed down by the United States Supreme Court. Significant decisions of more recent date have been reported in greater or lesser detail in the newspapers. However, it is safer for the research worker to examine a copy of the published decision, which offers all the dissenting opinions in full. There can be no comparison, insofar as validity is concerned, between the 73-page, official report of the Everson decision (1947) or the 54-page text of the McCollum decision (1948) of the United States Supreme Court with their respective abbreviated counterparts in the newspapers. Although court decisions rank as primary sources, the historical statements about education which appear therein are not. Records of court proceedings involving school litigation are to be regarded as primary sources.

3. INSTITUTIONAL RECORDS. Another class of documents consists of manuscript and unpublished records relating to educational institutions and their central administration. First of all, there are official records of students, faculty, and other personnel; salary schedules and other administrative documents; institutional catalogues and prospectuses; courses of study, examinations, teachers' manuals, les-

son plans, visual devices, textbooks, and other instructional materials; diplomas, report cards, commencement programs, and similar documents; reports by school and college committees; reports and letters and instructions by school, college, and supervisory executives; and minutes and reports of school boards. Catalogues and courses of study are official sources, but they merely indicate what should have been taught and who was appointed to offer instruction; they need supplementation with reference to what was actually taught. Most students are aware that changes are made in catalogues and courses of study after publication. Lecture manuscripts, lecture notes by students, and lesson plans which show signs of correction constitute fairly reasonable evidence of instruction. It should be noted, however, that lecture notes are likely to be incomplete and inaccurate in many details. Notice should also be taken of the fact that official reports may contain errors and that correspondence signed by a supervisory officer may have actually been written by a subordinate. The student should use his critical judgment with regard to the accuracy of these sources and should make an effort to find corroborative evidence.

In recent years there has been a trend on the part of educators and teachers to make use of devices, chiefly mechanical, other than the written or printed records. Disc, wire, tape, and film recordings of lessons are valuable records of instruction as actually carried on, but one must keep in mind that interpolations may be made in the two last-named types. Stenographic records of speeches are considered reliable with respect to the actual words and ideas expressed. Transcriptions of dictaphone, ediphone, and similar records of speeches, instructions, and telephone conversations are other types of new source materials, and these, like the manuscript and written documents, must be subjected to critical analysis.

Elementary, secondary, and college textbooks that were used as such are excellent indications of the content of instruction. To determine whether particular books were studied in any area, the student should consult reports and records of the school boards, as well as any available institutional catalogues. The popularity of a textbook may be judged by the number of copies that may still be located, by the

number of editions, and by the imitations. Careful analysis of textbooks, as done by John A. Nietz of the University of Pittsburgh and his students, will reveal teaching aims, content, and methodology.

In addition to the educational documents already described, there are unofficial reports by former students and visitors to the school. These have to be examined with meticulous care, since they may have been written some time after school attendance or visitation. Bias, pro and con, is not uncommon in such sources.

4. PROFESSIONAL RECORDS. Information may also be gleaned from the proceedings and publications issued by teachers' and other educational organizations such as the National Education Association. School surveys conducted by professional educational committees or by university bodies offer valuable data on school practices in a certain area. The findings of these reports are not necessarily accurate in all respects, since they are as good as the surveyors are qualified and unprejudiced.

The various writings on the professional aspects of education are very useful sources. Pedagogical books, pamphlets, and periodical articles published at a particular time indicate contemporary opinions, methodological suggestions, and other educational sentiments. From this viewpoint, such writings are primary sources. Historical information and statistical data included in these publications should be checked for accuracy by other sources. Books on the history of education are generally regarded as secondary sources for the information they contain, provided they were based on primary sources. Many histories which have been compounded of secondary materials cannot be classified any higher than tertiary.

Memoirs and reminiscences are often written by educators. These are primary sources, naturally, but the student should verify the statements by reference to contemporary documents. It is conceivable that autobiographical accounts may have been composed during the educator's retirement and substantiating records may not have been accessible. Too frequently retired schoolmen have relied upon their memories to reconstruct the past. Then, of course, there is the matter of bias which must be watched.

5. PUBLISHED RECORDS. Published sources of the types discussed in the previous paragraphs are primary in nature, but, as in the case of legislative enactments, there are previous stages which may be available and which should be compared with the product of the press. An original manuscript or typescript may be very helpful in understanding fully the content of a textbook or volume on education. Author's corrections of the galley and page proofs provide further insight into the actual intentions of an author. It is universally known that publishers and editors have a tendency toward tampering with the text submitted to them by a writer. Regardless of the improvements that may have resulted because of these changes, the fact remains that the finished product does not fully represent the work of the author. An excellent case in point is the censorship perpetrated by the publisher of the famous French encyclopedia of the eighteenth century. In *The Censoring of Diderot's Encyclopedie and the Re-established Text* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1947), Douglas H. Gordon and Norman L. Torrey made use of the original page proofs to reveal the type of material included by the editor but excised by the reactionary publisher. From the standpoint of the classroom, of course, it does not matter what the author intended to incorporate into his textbook; what is significant is the actual volume that was put into the hands of the children.

6. NEWSPAPER AND MAGAZINE SOURCES. In some researches students will find old magazines and newspapers which have a direct bearing upon their problem and which are commonly regarded as primary materials. Such sources cannot be evaluated as a whole, but rather on the basis of the separate units of information. The newspaper consists of news stories, editorials, special articles, letters to the editor, and advertisements. News stories are derived from direct observation by a reporter, who may or may not have been competent in educational matters, from releases sent in by educational institutions and organizations, from accounts published in other newspapers, or from miscellaneous origins. It is obvious to one who has studied the technique of historiography that the newspaper story is as accurate as its source. Information transmitted by institutions may not be free from self-

interest; consequently, since the material upon which the newspaper accounts were based is probably no longer in existence, the student cannot rely upon the information in the newspaper without checking it against another source. Editorials and even special articles are expressions of opinion, and, as such, must be treated as primary sources; yet, the data which they contain are secondary materials. Letters to the editor, if genuine, may be cited as indications of attitudes toward schools, studies and the like.

School advertisements in newspapers are useful primary sources insofar as they indicate what subjects were proposed for instruction, the tuition fees, and the names of the teachers. Like institutional catalogues, they do not constitute proof that instruction was carried on. However, in the case of repeated advertisements of the identical studies, it may be assumed that teaching was done. It is hardly conceivable that proprietors of schools would continue advertising for any length of time without realizing some return. There is no reason for supposing that the claims made in the advertisements are necessarily true, since it is commonly known that advertisers do not tend toward modesty or understatement when describing what they have to offer to the public. Thus, students should not accept, without substantiation, any assertion that a given school or teacher is the "best" or the "first."

Whatever has been said about the contents of a newspaper also applies to the corresponding material found in the old magazines. Articles in the latter may be considered more reliable than those in the newspaper, since they have probably been prepared with less haste and with greater care. But here, too, the student must be on the lookout against the error of treating everything in the article as primary material. Those working with newspapers and magazines should also be wary of accepting them uncritically as indexes of public opinion. There are too many instances in history where the real public opinion and the publicized public opinion did not coincide.

7. NON-SCHOLASTIC SOURCES. There are so many other types of non-scholastic sources of educational data that they will be merely

mentioned without any comment, except in some instances. Valuable educational information may be derived from indentures, wills, deeds, account books, contracts, inventories, business dealings, and similar documents. All these have primary value. Biographies, autobiographies, travel books, memoirs, reminiscences, annals, chronicles, and histories are first-hand sources when examined as a unit. Closer scrutiny, however, may reveal inaccuracies, prejudices, gaps, and other shortcomings, since these writings are usually undertaken some time after the events they describe have occurred. Non-educators do not hesitate to give vent to their bias about the school experiences of their childhood and adolescence, as, for example, Winston Churchill has done in his autobiography with reference to Latin. On the other hand, personal letters, diaries, and commonplace books are generally regarded by historians as more reliable, inasmuch as the entries were usually made immediately after the events or shortly afterward.

8. PUBLIC DOCUMENTS. Public sources containing educational data require greater attention than the foregoing, because these may be more frequently available to the historian than the private sources. Church documents, such as decrees of synods and councils, episcopal records, baptismal and marriage records, and similar materials, often contain useful information of interest to the educational historian. These sources are customarily regarded as reliable. Town records, proceedings of town councils, federal and state census returns and other statistical compilations, vital records and statistics, and tax lists are other source materials which yield valuable information on educational matters. Not all of these materials, however, have primary source value. Statistics are collected from all kinds of individuals, organizations, and governmental agencies, and it requires no great imagination to discern the possibilities of error. International statistics on illiteracy are notoriously inaccurate, since governments have been loath, for reasons of national pride, to reveal the full extent of the reading ability of their citizens. Research workers should remember that statistical figures are not real primary sources, even though they are frequently utilized as such. Experienced investigators of town

records, such as Robert F. Seybolt and Marcus W. Jernegan, have pointed out that these sources are often incomplete and inaccurate. In several instances these records do not transcribe the original documents faithfully. Consequently, even such primary sources may require substantiating evidence of another type before they can be relied upon with assurance.

9. REMAINS. Remains should not be overlooked in research in educational history. First, there are the surviving school buildings themselves, the furniture, and the various kind of teaching and administrative equipment. Blank notebooks, diplomas, certificates, report cards, and other administrative forms are also classified as remains, but these are not likely to give up much information of value. Archeological remains have been of great significance to students of the history of education in Greece and Rome.

Interesting collections of teaching and administrative equipment, as well as of other educational remains, have been deposited in some museums. The Museum of the City of New York has materials which are of value to the history of local education. A few of the treasures of the Lübeck Museum were photographed and reproduced by J. Warncke in his article, "Mittelalterliche Schulgeräte im Museum zu Lübeck" (*Zeitschrift für Geschichte der Erziehung und des Unterrichts*, I, 1911, pp. 227-50). Instruments used in initiating German students into fraternities were collected by the Deutsche Gesellschaft, and some of these are shown in A. Brügmann's *Zucht und Leben der deutschen Studenten, 1648-1848* (Berlin: Limpert, 1941, facing p. 33).

10. PICTORIAL SOURCES. Photographs of school scenes, buildings, furniture, and equipment may also be ranked among the primary source materials. However, the student must be aware of the possibility that photographic negatives are frequently retouched. Moreover, photographs may be posed, and therefore not fully valid as sources of knowledge about the school practices which they purport to portray. H. G. Good has noted that photographs usually offer a single view and do not show accurate relations of space.

Prints and drawings cannot be accepted as genuine or representa-

tive of a certain period without verification. A specific example may be recorded at this point. Cubberley's *Public Education in the United States* illustrates the verbal description of the colonial dame school by means of a drawing captioned, "A Dame School." Presumably, this is a pictorial representation of an American school. Strangely, this drawing accompanies a description of the dame school in England in Cubberley's *History of Education* and is captioned, "An English Dame School," with subtitle, "from a drawing of a school in the heart of London, after Barclay." The identical illustration and caption appear in Monroe's *Founding of the American Public School System*, but with the addition of the source, "from a contemporary drawing in Bartley, *Industrial Schools for the People*, p. 404." The case in favor of this drawing as an example of the colonial dame school in America is apparently strengthened. A conscientious research worker, deciding to check further, consults Knight's *Education in the United States* and finds the same drawing labeled, "An English Dame School," with the explanation, "after a drawing by Barclay." Just for good measure, he might look into Eby and Arrowood's *The Development of Modern Education* and find this drawing once more, this time in the midst of a discussion of education in England. The inscription under the illustration is now, "A Dame School in London, from 1834 to 1870." Clearly, there is something wrong somewhere, with no apparent relief in sight. Before the student gives up in despair, he should pick up the clue offered by Monroe as to the source of the sketch. The card catalogue of a large library will reveal the existence of a volume, *The Schools for the People*, by George C. T. Bartley (London: Bell and Daldy, 1871). Facing page 405 is the drawing by J. Jellicoe which has been so widely reproduced in American works on education. This is entitled, "A London Dame School in 1870," and on page 405 Bartley states, "The drawing was taken on the spot after some little diplomacy, and, although perhaps too picturesque, is a fair representation of one of the thousands of Dame Schools at the present moment at work in London." Apparently, this is the true origin of the famous drawing of the "American" dame school. The student should note, in passing,

how errors have crept into most of the captions attached to the drawing.

Since drawings are often inserted into historical writings to lend an air of authenticity to the content, it is well for the student to apply the principles of criticism to them as he would ordinarily toward written documents. He should learn to be wary of engravings and other kinds of sketches which lack an identifying source. Some of these are obtained by authors from business firms specializing in the collection of historical illustrations. It is next to impossible to get information about the origin of these pictures, since these companies do not wish the authors to go to the original sources and thereby to bypass their collections. Other drawings are prepared especially for a particular historical volume, and they have virtually no validity as source materials. Artistic imagination may produce aesthetically satisfying illustrations, but it cannot necessarily claim to forward the interests of scientific history.

Old paintings sometimes portray incidents of educational interest. If they illustrate contemporary scenes or events, then they have some value as sources, provided they did not result from the pure imagination of the artist. Paintings depicting scenes of earlier ages are naturally even less likely to be authentic. The familiar painting by Raphael, showing Plato and Aristotle with their disciples, is superb, artistically speaking, and interesting, but historically unconvincing.

11. REPRODUCTIONS. Exact reproductions of documents—facsimiles, photostatic copies, photographs—rank as originals, so far as the nature of the content is concerned. The specimen title pages of educational works or of old textbooks which are reproduced in historical studies may well be studied in lieu of the scarce and frequently inaccessible originals. A good sampling of such facsimile pages which help illustrate American education may be found in Clifton Johnson's *Old-Time Schools and School-Books*. Another good example of a precisely reproduced source is the reprint by Ginn and Company of a late eighteenth-century edition of *The New England Primer*. Good reproductions of old horn books are available in

Beulah Folmsbee's *A Little History of the Horn-book* (Boston: The Horn Book, Inc., 1942).

12. TRANSLATIONS. A competent translation which is based on a reliable edition of an educational work is, for all practical purposes, as good as the original. In many instances, unfortunately, translations do injustice to the author's content, style, and intentions. Some translations are, in reality, abridgements. Before using a translation, the student should examine it carefully to note whether it is actually the complete text or an abbreviated version. One can get a far more accurate conception of Rousseau's educational theories as expressed in *Emile* by utilizing the Everyman edition, which is a complete rendering of the text, than the Worthington extracts from the first three books of Rousseau's famous work. Those who are not fully at home in a foreign language should use an English translation rather than wander fruitlessly through the pages of the original. Perhaps the best solution would be for a student who has a fair reading knowledge of a foreign language to study the original side by side with a good translation.

Secondary Sources

Thus far, a good deal of attention has been given to primary source materials, the basic stuff of historical writing. In addition to these, the historian also uses authenticated secondary sources for a variety of purposes. As mentioned previously, secondary sources serve as an introduction to a research topic. They are also useful in checking some types of source materials and in other ways. It is necessary, therefore, to devote space to an analysis of the secondary sources.

A good secondary source is a document or account which is based upon primary materials. If it passes the tests of reliability and accuracy, it might well be a very serviceable source indeed. In fact, historians would rather rely upon first-rate secondary sources than upon doubtful and fragmentary primary sources. But this should not lead the student to search for secondary materials at the expense of the primary. One cannot write a paper on the ideas of Horace Mann by merely reading biographies and textbooks. It is not possible

to write an authentic account of an educational movement, such as Herbartianism in America, by simply collating the summaries in the textbooks on educational history.

1. EVALUATION OF TEXTBOOKS. To help the student find his way among the numerous secondary materials a few paragraphs will be dedicated to the examination of specimen sources. There are textbooks and textbooks. Some writers make an effort to base their descriptions of educational events upon as many primary sources as possible. Then they will refer to the standard research monographs on the respective topics in the book. Finally, and reluctantly, they will draw upon other textbooks. This would seem to be the best procedure of producing a textbook in educational history. John S. Brubacher's *A History of the Problems of Education* is a notable example of this practice, as are W. Kane's *An Essay Toward a History of Education* and Eby and Arrowood's volumes. Unfortunately, not all textbooks reflect such high standards. Many chapters in Stephen Duggan's *A Student's Textbook in the History of Education* (third edition, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948), rely chiefly upon other textbooks, as might be judged from an examination of the bibliographies. A typical chapter bibliography in Elmer H. Wilds' *The Foundations of Modern Education* (new edition, New York, Farrar and Rinehart, 1942) contains sixteen references, at least two-thirds of which are textbooks in educational history. It might be argued, of course, that textbook authors do not necessarily use the bibliographies they append to their chapters, and that they use better materials in the composition of their account. However, were that the case, the authors would have been duty bound to mention, for the benefit of the reader, the sources which they did utilize. Incidentally, there is no guarantee that an author who cites sources and studies in his bibliographies has actually consulted them. It is the responsibility of the research worker, therefore, to evaluate carefully the secondary sources he proposes to use.

A good secondary source will be amply documented by means of footnotes or other forms of notes. This will give the student the opportunity of checking the types of sources drawn upon by the

author. But the number and size of the notes need not signify scholarly erudition. An example in point is Walter A. Lunden's *The Dynamics of Higher Education* (Pittsburgh: Pittsburgh Printing Co., 1939). A little over half of this volume consists of a history of higher education from the Greek period to the present. As one turns its pages, one cannot escape noticing the long, abundant footnotes supporting the text. More careful examination discloses that these notes consist of citations borrowed, with credit to be sure, from other works; of quotations from textbooks in educational and general history, some of them outdated at the time of publication; and of undocumented explanatory notes by the author, an assistant professor of sociology at the University of Pittsburgh. In view of the fact that Dr. Lunden has cited Hastings Rashdall's *The Universities of the Middle Ages* so frequently in some of his chapters, it is difficult to see why a research worker should not consult Rashdall directly in preference to Lunden, assuming that Rashdall is available in the library. An interesting instance of how far a student can get from a primary source when he uses a textbook can be found in the first footnote on page 7 of Lunden's volume. Jordanus' *Chronica*, a medieval work, is cited from Schardius' *De jurisdictione imperiali* (1566), which in turn is quoted from Rashdall. This statement, as it appears in Lunden, is in the category of a quaternary source, that is, thrice removed from the primary. The fact that the statement in question happens to be a quotation makes no difference, since quotations may become garbled. The disadvantages of overfrequent and uncritical use of secondary sources should be evident.

2. EVALUATION OF AUTHORSHIP OF INSTITUTIONAL HISTORIES. Another index by which to evaluate secondary sources is the authorship. It is helpful to know whether the writer of the secondary account is trained in educational history. Very frequently, histories of colleges and universities, as well as other historical works in education, are prepared by individuals who have no special qualifications for the writing of history. Some of these authors are professors of English, biology, journalism, or another subject; some are journalists, school superintendents, and representatives of other professions. While there

is no implication that these historical writers are unqualified to do historical research and to compose an historical narrative, there is little doubt that a volume written by an experienced historian will generally reflect greater care in the selection of sources and in the formulation of conclusions. In many cases there are no indications of the author's background.

Some sample evaluations of secondary sources will help fix these points in mind. Horace Coon's *Columbia: Colossus on the Hudson* (New York: Dutton, 1947), a somewhat critical narrative of the development of Columbia University, lacks footnotes and a bibliography, but it shows evidence that the author has consulted a variety of sources. Obviously the product of a person unaffiliated with the university, this book cannot be regarded as institutional propaganda on the one hand or as an unbiased discussion on the other. Statements favorable to the university may accordingly be acceptable for research purposes, while unfriendly comment may be due to the author's prejudice. In any event, the research worker must consider each statement on its own merits, before he accepts or rejects it. The author, Mr. Coon, is unidentified in the book itself, but information may be found in the *Who's Who* or on the book jacket, if available.

Another institutional history will now be examined. *History of the University of Pennsylvania, 1740-1940* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1940), by Edward P. Cheyney, has every indication that it is an officially sponsored publication. Dr. Cheyney's name is a familiar one in the field of history. A past president of the American Historical Association, author of historical studies, and professor emeritus of history at the University of Pennsylvania, Dr. Cheyney was undoubtedly qualified to undertake the task of writing his university's history. The content of this history appears to be based in part on primary source materials, but there is little documentation. It can hardly be imagined that a historian of Cheyney's reputation would write an historical account without exhausting all available primary materials. Here is a case where the name of the author represents a guarantee of historical quality. However, this

conclusion is a concession to practical needs and is by no means a scientifically critical procedure.

One more study in higher educational history will be evaluated. *The University of Wisconsin: A History, 1848-1925* (2 vols., Madison, University of Wisconsin Press, 1949), by Merle Curti and Vernon Carstensen, is, like Cheyney's history, an official publication; nevertheless, there is evidence that the authors did independent thinking. Frequent citation of primary sources, including manuscripts, and an apparently thorough treatment of all phases of the university's history inspire confidence in the book. Furthermore, Curti and Carstensen are professor and assistant professor of history, respectively, at the university, the former being especially known for his scholarly contributions to educational, social, and cultural history. The value of this study as a research source is quite clear.

3. MONOGRAPHS. Monographs are excellent aids in research. These are intensive studies of limited topics and are usually equipped with generous documentation and bibliographical references. The authors of monographs in educational history are, for the most part, scholars who have specialized in educational or general history, or graduate students who have spent years of careful study in the field. On a smaller scale, there are numerous articles on topics in educational history which are published in educational and historical journals. These smaller contributions are of varying merit and should be carefully evaluated before use. In fact, even the monographs bear close examination, since it is too easy to take them all at face value. Allen O. Hansen's *Liberalism and American Education in the Eighteenth Century* (New York: Macmillan, 1925) made full use of primary sources, as may be seen by checking the text, footnotes, and bibliography. On the other hand, Theodore Hornberger's *Scientific Thought in the American Colleges, 1638-1800* (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1945) is overdependent upon secondary authorities, a fact which the student may verify by inspecting the notes at the end of the monograph.

4. ERRORS IN SECONDARY SOURCES. It is important to realize that even historical experts fall into error (*errare est humanum!*) and that no

specialized study can be assumed to be fully flawless. Thus, the late Preserved Smith, a first-rate historian, maintains in *A History of Modern Culture* (Vol. I, *The Great Renewal, 1543-1687*, New York, Holt, 1930, p. 323) that the Southern colonies in seventeenth-century America were quite unconcerned about providing free schools. In support of this assertion he cites the oft-quoted remark made by Governor Sir William Berkeley of Virginia in 1670, when he thanked God that "‘there are no free schools, nor printing; and I hope we shall not have any these hundred years; for learning hath brought disobedience and heresy and sects into the world, and printing hath divulged them and libels against the best governments.’" Professor Smith, a recognized authority on the Reformation, then goes on to say, "This happy condition of popular ignorance he labored sedulously to preserve." Anyone familiar with the full text of Berkeley's statement knows that the quoted portion is preceded by a sentence from which an opposite conclusion might be inferred. The circumstances which led the governor to issue his famous remark must also be known before an adequate interpretation can be made. Even more, as Monroe has pointed out in his *Founding of the American Public School System*, Berkeley's personal acts belied his alleged reputation as an enemy of education. Here we have authority versus authority. Smith, however, did not concern himself exclusively with educational history as Monroe did; hence, one might choose to side with the latter, perhaps the most widely accepted writer on educational history in his time. It is also evident from the context of Smith's treatment of the Berkeley quotation that he did not consider it in full. Further, a glance in the bibliography at the books that Smith probably used as background for his conclusions about Berkeley shows the presence of only one volume from which he might have derived his information, Dexter's *History of Education in the United States*. It is not certain that he made use of this book, since his quotation does not coincide with Dexter's. Apparently, he found the Berkeley statement in another secondary source, but even then he might have checked it against Dexter's complete version.

Errors and inadequacies of a similar type may be even found in the

textbooks and monographs of specialists in educational history. So drawn-out and complicated is the process of checking sources that occasional items are overlooked. An alert research worker will undoubtedly discover such slips and will avoid repeating them as facts simply because they have been printed in authoritative publications. Evaluation is an extremely important phase in the research process, and it must be continually practised if the student wishes to obtain any results which can withstand the onslaughts of criticism.

5. EVALUATION OF SECONDARY STATEMENTS. In checking one source against another, the historian is likely to find similar statements in two or more accounts. This situation is possible in both primary and secondary sources. What the historian must do, in such cases, is to determine whether one source borrowed from another, whether both were derived from another, or whether both were derived from the same source. One example will serve as an illustration. A certain volume on educational research, in discussing the development of educational history, states as follows:

The beginning of the twentieth century brought about a new conception of the content of educational history. Davidson's *A History of Education* (1900) was among the first educational treatises of a historical nature that did not utilize biography; instead it traced the development of education as a factor of man's growth and development.

Nine years later Monroe brought forth his *Textbook in the History of Education*, which dealt with educational development in the light of its relation to the history of civilization in general, with especial emphasis upon the broad social and intellectual movements of the past. Monroe, through this mode of attack, set the pattern for future histories of education in the United States, and his influence is still felt.

Now here is an excerpt from an article published six years before the sentences just quoted:

About the turn of the century a new conception of the content of the history of education began to appear. Thomas Davidson's *A History of Education*, published in 1900, was the first general historical treatise that was not mainly biographical and that attempted to trace the devel-

opment of education as part of human evolution. Monroe's *A Textbook in the History of Education*, which appeared in 1909, was a scholarly effort to show the relation between educational development and other aspects of the history of civilization.

For purposes of identification, let the first quotation be referred to as A and the second (and older) as B. The reader has probably noted numerous similarities, both as to fact and expression, between both statements. Before jumping to conclusions that A was derived from B, the possibility should be considered that both may have been taken from a common source. However, it seems more probable that A read B and made use of its data. First, the author of B is a recognized specialist in educational history and its research methodology, and has written extensively on many aspects of his specialty, whereas the strength of A lies in other directions. Second, the selected bibliography of A includes B among a dozen references, not one of which contains the matter quoted. Third, there are correspondences between both documents other than those cited here. Fourth, an error in B is repeated with slight change of phraseology in A. The date of Monroe's textbook is mentioned as 1909 by B and as "nine years later" than Davidson's volume (1900) by A. The real date of publication was 1905, as correctly given in the bibliography at the end of B's article. Incidentally, the precise title of Monroe's volume is *A Text-Book in the History of Education*.

What may have happened was that the author of A took notes on B's document, among many others, and then lost track of his source. This happens rather often when reading and note-taking are done too hastily and carelessly. This example also illustrates that secondary (and lower) sources may be misleading in research unless examined under the critical microscope.

One more example of evaluating a secondary statement will be given. The document under discussion, Lawrence A. Averill's "Reminiscences of a Psychologist" (*Educational Forum*, V, January, 1941, pp. 169-79), was prepared in commemoration of the author's completion of 25 years as head of the department of psychology at

Worcester (Mass.) State Teachers College and as a Ph.D. Although this article is classified as a primary source with respect to the life and professional career of Averill, to the history of the psychology department at the college, and to Averill's teachers, it is a secondary source as far as the miscellaneous historical comments are concerned. According to Averill, "As late as 1915 it was still customary for young American psychologists to feel the need of spending some time in German universities before settling down to the prosecution of their interests in laboratories and lecture-halls at home . . ." (p. 173); "It is not too much to say that every graduate student under Hall and Burnham was oriented strongly in the direction of mental hygiene" (p. 172). Obviously, the author is generalizing on the basis of his own experience, for which reason these statements must be considered secondary and must be verified. It is also important to know whether Dr. Averill had any contemporary documents at his disposal when he wrote his reminiscences, inasmuch as it is clear from his own remarks that he prepared this article more than 25 years after the events he described. Reliance upon the memoranda, letters, diary, and other records of his student days and his early years as a teacher would make this collection of reminiscences very significant for purposes of research. It is evident from the content that Dr. Averill referred to some corroborative evidence in the writing of his article.

Special Problems of Research in Educational History

1. DATING. From an examination of the process of evaluating primary and secondary sources the student can now turn to a consideration of special problems which arise during research in educational history. A problem that comes up from time to time is how to supply a date for a manuscript or printed document lacking one. The importance of a date for drawing conclusions about the relationship of one document to another has already been demonstrated on a previous page during the discussion involving A and B. Dates are often omitted in manuscripts, newspaper clippings somehow lose their identifying dates, and publishers sometimes overlook to insert the date of publication on the title or copyright page of a book.

Garraghan has correctly warned that undated documents, in most instances, are useless for historical purposes.

Reference books and textbooks do not always contain accurate biographical or other dates. A student searching for the birth date of Johann Bernhard Basedow, an eighteenth-century German educator, will find most textbooks in educational history listing it as 1723, with some of the recent publications tending to favor 1724. One textbook mentions the date as "1724?". A similar perplexity is bound to result when one tries to ascertain the birth date of Alfred the Great. Of fifteen encyclopedic and historical reference books, ten state that the Anglo-Saxon king-educator was born in 849, while five prefer 848. Still another encyclopedia offers "849?" as the proper date (William W. Brickman, "The Natal Date of Alfred the Great," *School and Society*, vol. 67, January 3, 1948, p. 11). The lack of an exact and accurate date is embarrassing.

In view of the fact that the process of dating documents is quite laborious and complicated, it will not be out of place to discuss principles before the practices are described. The date of a published document is usually available on the title page. Sometimes, in lieu of this, the date of copyright is given on the reverse side. The copyright date is a better indication of the actual time of publication than the date given on the title page. Publishers tend to favor a new date on the title page every time they reprint a book. If there are two copyright dates, 28 years apart, the first date is the original time of composition, while the second date merely keeps the volume under copyright protection. A revised edition of a book is given a new copyright date.

Then there is another date in some books, at the end of the author's preface. This would seem, at first glance, to supply the exact date when the book was completed; yet, this is no guarantee, as a writer may prepare and even date the preface before finishing his book. There may also be a gap between the completion of the text and the writing of the preface.

If the book carries no date at all—and students may find such cases rather frequently if they use foreign books—the research worker

must venture to date it. The process which is applied is the same for published documents, as well as for newspaper clippings and manuscripts. The undated source might be compared with known materials of presumably the same period with respect to phraseology, style, content, allusions, handwriting, type face, binding, paper, ink, and the like. A document which fails to refer to a certain event of exceptionally great importance and relevance may be considered to have preceded that event. This technique of inferring from silence (*argumentum ex silentio*) must be used with extreme caution, and not all historians are convinced of its utility. A document which mentions an event may be presumed, if no interpolation has been committed, to have originated after the event.

Approximate dates may be obtained, in the case of books, by checking newspapers and magazines for reviews and discussions. It is common practice for periodicals to review new books within a year, sometimes within two years, after publication. The lapse of time between the publication date of a book and the appearance of a review in a newspaper is even shorter. Citations from the undated book in volumes of known date also help establish an approximate time of publication.

After studying the external characteristics of an undated document, the student should proceed to an internal analysis. He must be on the alert for names, events, dates, catch phrases, ideas, clichés, and other clues likely to aid him in determining the date of his document. By means of these clues he is able to establish two dates, between which lies the accurate date. First, he fixes the latest possible date (*terminus ante quem*) and the earliest possible date (*terminus post quem*), and then he continues to close up the gap by using any new clues he may obtain after repeated study of the document.

An example will show how the foregoing principles are put into practice. The present author has in his possession a partially dated clipping from the *New York Times* carrying the headline, "Public School Aim Widens in Britain." This is a wireless dispatch sent from London by Robert P. Post on June 16. All this information is taken from the clipping, the edges of which are somewhat faded. There is

no indication of the year on the face or on the reverse of the clipping. A reading of the entire story, which occupies a full newspaper column, discloses mention of statistics of school attendance for March, 1942. This date, then, becomes the *terminus post quem*. The article deals primarily with an address delivered to the House of Commons that day by Richard Austen Butler, president of the Board of Education. Note Mr. Butler's title. Anyone familiar with the recent history of education in Great Britain knows—anyone indeed may know if he consults a good, up-to-date textbook or monograph—that under the Education Act of 1944 the Minister of Education took over the duties of the president of the Board of Education. The official text of the act indicates that the transformation of the Board of Education into the Ministry of Education took place on August 3, 1944, the day the act went into effect. Evidently, this date is the *terminus ante quem*. Since the article is datelined June 16, this *terminus* must be pushed back to June 17, the date when the dispatch appeared in the newspaper. Further proof that the last possible year of publication was 1944 consists in the reporter's paraphrase of Mr. Butler's remarks of repudiation of "the old British idea that education for the general public ceased at the age of fourteen." From this and from a similar statement in the paragraph next to last it may be inferred that the Education Act of 1944, which raised the age of compulsory attendance to fifteen, had not yet been passed. Very possibly, since no reference is made to it in this long article, it had not yet been introduced into Commons (*argumentum ex silentio*). If this be true, then the year of publication of this story should be either 1942 or 1943.

What has been said thus far should be satisfactory for the more elementary types of research, but the task of dating is still incomplete. A student doing an intensive study of Butler as an educationist would have to find a more precise solution. He might consult the *Parliamentary Debates* for June 17, 1942 and 1943, and he will find Mr. Butler's complete address. He might check the *New York Times Index* for those years if the debates are unavailable. But this is neither here nor there; not all clippings are conveniently taken from the

Times. Moreover, this example of the technique of dating should be carried to its conclusion. Accordingly, the research worker rereads the third paragraph and takes note that Mr. Butler announced the appointment of a committee headed by Lord Fleming to study the possibility of providing a public school (boarding school) education "for everybody, regardless of cost" (quoted words are the reporter's). An examination of the library catalogue leads to a publication by the Board of Education entitled, *The Public Schools and the General Educational System*. The subtitle states that this is a report of the Committee on Public Schools appointed by the Board of Education in July, 1942. It is clear, beyond any doubt, that the dispatch from London was published on June 17, 1942. The discrepancy between the date or appointment of Lord Fleming's committee as given by the newspaper and as stated in the published report may be due to the fact that the appointment, announced in June, did not become official until July.

The *modus operandi* of dating many seem to be rather formidable, but it actually takes less time than one supposes. The speed with which a document can be dated depends upon the accessibility of reference materials in a well-stocked library and the alert imagination of the research worker. Some may argue that this procedure is unnecessary, but they can hardly be interested in careful historical work.

Other examples of arriving at conclusions with respect to dates will be taken from the literature in educational history. Joseph A. Landschoof, in his *The Life and Work of Johann Bernhard Basedow* (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, New York University, 1933), establishes the German educator's date of birth, September 11, 1724, on the basis of the baptismal record and the manuscript *vita* attached to Basedow's master's dissertation submitted to the University of Kiel in 1752. The evidence for 1723 as the birth date consists of statements by Basedow's son and by his earliest biographer, who knew the family intimately. Karl Von Raumer's *Geschichte der Pädagogik* was the probable origin of this error, which is found in numerous textbooks. Dr. Landschoof discounts the dates of September 5, 9,

and 10, 1724, as given by other biographers, on the grounds that the baptismal record is incontestable and that Basedow must have taken special pains to be accurate when he included his birth date in the biographical information in his master's thesis. To keep the record clear, it should be stated that Landschoof did not examine the baptismal certificate himself, but relied upon a biographer of Basedow who stated that he had seen it. The *vita*, however, appears in photostat form in Landschoof's dissertation, the author having had it called to his attention by the director of the Preussisches Staatsarchiv where it was located by chance by a descendant of Basedow. In Basedow's own Latin words, "Joannes Bernardus Basedow anno salutis MDCCXIV tertio idus Septembres ex tenui familia Hamburgi natus...."

In 1944, when institutions were celebrating the one hundredth anniversary of the birth of G. Stanley Hall, a famous psychologist who was the first president of Clark University, Paul F. Finner, professor of psychology at Florida State College for Women at Tallahassee, stated that reference books do not agree about Hall's birth date. He pointed out that no less than three dates—February 1, 1844, May 6, 1845, and February 1, 1846—are given in those sources and that Louis N. Wilson, who worked closely with Hall, used the date, February 1, 1846, in his biography of the psychologist. Inclining to Wilson's view, Professor Finner decided to accept February 1, 1846, but urged further research. ("Concerning the Centennial of Granville Stanley Hall," *School and Society*, vol. 60, July 8, 1944, pp. 30-31).

The next step was taken by Albert J. Chidester, professor of education at Berea College in Kentucky ("In What Year was G. Stanley Hall Born?" *School and Society*, vol. 60, December 23, 1944, pp. 420-21). Professor Chidester states that the vital records of Ashfield, Mass., Hall's apparent birthplace, do not contain the name of G. Stanley Hall; that Hall himself did not refer to his birth date in a biographical article written for the "History of Ashfield," which contains elsewhere the birth date of 1845; that different editions of *Who's Who in America* mention different dates—May 6, 1846,

and February 1, 1846; and that two out of eight other biographical lists offer February 1, 1844. A letter from the town clerk of Ashfield informed Professor Chidester that Hall's monument carried the inscription, "Born, February 1, 1844." At this point, Professor Chidester declared himself satisfied, although he did recommend that further research be done.

The quest for the elusive date was continued by Fletcher H. Swift, professor of education at the University of California (Berkeley), who reported his findings in an article, "Sleuthing for the Birth Date of G. Stanley Hall" (*School and Society*, vol. 63, April 13, 1946, pp. 249-52). Professor Swift, whose studies in the history of financing educational systems established him as an outstanding scholar and research specialist in educational history, undertook a more systematic, thorough, and painstaking investigation. After communicating with all the institutions with which Dr. Hall had been affiliated throughout his life, with the son of the late president, and with the General Land Office, Professor Swift concluded that "the most probable month and day of Hall's birth appear to be February 1." His reasoning was based on the circumstance that all the sources, save the first three volumes of *Who's Who in America*, recorded the date February 1. As far as the year was concerned, however, Professor Swift could arrive at no satisfactory conclusion. Despite the evidence that the earliest records favor 1844 and that Louis N. Wilson, "Hall's life-long friend and secretary," finally inclined toward that date, Swift felt that "there appears to be no basis for regarding these arguments as conclusive." His final judgment, that "Hall's actual birth date cannot be determined beyond all question of doubt until some genuine and indisputably authentic record of his birth date has been discovered," was reenforced by the fact that Hall was evidently confused about the date. It is significant to take note of an experienced historian's caution in coming to a conclusion.

2. SOURCES OF AN EDUCATIONAL IDEA OR BOOK. The determination of the relationship of educational idea or practice to other ones is by no means an easy feat. This problem of dependence may be considered under two main subheadings, origins and influence, the latter of

which will be treated separately. By origins is meant the actual beginnings, insofar as discernible, of an educational institution, thought, or practice. This is not a matter of antiquarian interest—reason enough for study and research—but rather of significance, inasmuch as theories and generalizations often rest upon the supposed origin of some phase of education. The question of primacy, that is, which institution, method, or book was the first of its kind, is one which has caused considerable debate and ill-feeling in the past. It would therefore seem desirable to attempt to devise scientific criteria by which to determine primacy. Another aspect of the problem of origins is the establishment of the sources of a published or manuscript work in education.

To begin with the last—How can one find out with reasonable certainty which educational works were used as sources by a writer of a given book? Broken down into its elements, this question seeks to ascertain the extent to which an educational work is original, the extent to which it is borrowed, and the sources of specific borrowings. In this way, proper recognition is given to the fact, as expressed by Edward P. Cheyney, that “everything is the outcome of something preceding.” At the same time, the forgotten men whose ideas and deeds have helped build the reputation of later pedagogical heroes are placed in their proper niches in educational history. Educators who have been prominent in their own days have become eclipsed as time went on, while minor figures have gained stature through the achievements of great men whom they have influenced.

The search for the sources of an educational work involves mainly comparisons with other writings from which the educator in question may have derived inspiration and even material. It is important to keep in mind that passages which are alike in wording and in ideas may not necessarily represent, without further proof, a case of derivation, but rather of coincidence. Resemblance, moreover, need not presuppose direct dependence; it may be due to the presence of an intermediary source. As Villey has pointed out (cited in Morize's *Problems and Methods of Literary History*), Michel de Montaigne used expressions taken from Latin writers, not as a result

of his having studied the classical literature, but because he found them conveniently in the writings of a learned friend. Another useful warning for the research worker is the one stressed by Morize, namely, the avoidance of the "hypnotism of the unique source." What this means simply is that a certain passage may have a multiple, instead of a single, source. It is also important to distinguish between literal borrowing (with or without quotation marks) and modified borrowing. In any event, anyone making a scientific study of an educator should endeavor, as far as possible, to learn what he can of the sources of that individual's ideas, since it is hardly conceivable that a full evaluation of a work is possible without them. When the student knows *what* the educator used as inspiration for his writings, and *why*, he is in a good position to obtain a deep understanding of his ideas.

As stated in the previous paragraph, comparisons must be made before the sources of an educational work may be determined. This does not mean merely the juxtaposition of similar or identical passages; it also includes, according to Morize, the examination of various factors affecting the thinker—education, hasty reading, conversation, the intellectual-social-political environment, tradition, friendships, and associations. In brief, to know the sources of an educational work is really to know the educator.

The student's natural question is now, How and where to begin? Morize offers several pertinent suggestions. In the first place, it is necessary to study the educator's private library, if available, or to reconstruct the library by tracing the scattered books. An examination of the volumes may disclose notes, remarks, and underlined passages, as well as signs when these particular books were read. Second, information should be obtained about the periodicals and newspapers to which the educator subscribed. The third suggestion of Morize is to make a list of the author's readings, as ascertainable from clues in his correspondence and other writings. These clues consist of references to names and events, and allusions of an historical nature. Fourth, the research worker should enumerate the books and documents which may have been used by the writer when

he was working on his own book. Finally, suggests Morize, there should be a study of the writer's friendships, associations, educational background, travel, and cultural interests—"in short, the immense contributions from life, which often outweigh the contributions from books."

Assuming that the historian has compiled these lists, has meticulously investigated the books literally from cover to cover, and has discovered indisputable evidence that the educator has read and consulted these volumes during the time he was preparing his opus, there still remains the question of how to demonstrate that the educator has actually utilized these publications as sources, rather than others which have not yet been located. Morize does not consider this angle. At best, it seems that, under these circumstances, one might conclude that these books were the *apparent* sources of the educator's work. This is as far as a scientific educational historian can presume to go. Even a statement by the educator regarding the source of his ideas should be taken with the proverbial grain of salt in the absence of corroborative evidence.

A case study from the literature in educational history will illustrate the previous discussion. In "The Sources of Spencer's *Education*" (*Journal of Educational Research*, XIII, May, 1926, pp. 325-35), H. G. Good claims, on the basis of parallels between Joseph Priestley's educational writings and Spencer's initial chapter ("What Knowledge Is of Most Worth?"), that the latter is "an expansion of the specific ideas of Joseph Priestley." Other than showing close parallels, Good does not actually prove that Spencer derived his educational ideas from Priestley. Examining this contention in "The Sources of Herbert Spencer's Educational Ideas" (*Journal of Educational Research*, XXII, November, 1930, pp. 299-308), Norman T. Walker of the University of Aberdeen analyzes the British sociologist's *Education: Intellectual, Moral, and Physical* with reference to the origins of its constituent parts. Professor Walker begins by noting that H. G. Good's conclusion that Spencer borrowed from Joseph Priestley's educational works was only slightly valid, since Spencer did not cite Priestley whereas he mentioned other educational writers.

Among the educators referred to by name in Spencer's *Education* are Marcel, Wyse, Pestalozzi, Fellenberg, Tyndall, Horace Mann, and Pillans. The last four, who are represented by a few quotations, are dismissed by Walker. The remaining three "were Spencer's principal authorities for his educational views." Thomas Wyse's *Educational Reform* is quoted three times by Spencer, twice in support of a position taken by Marcel. Except for one long quotation, there is little evidence, according to Walker, of Spencer's indebtedness to Wyse. With regard to Pestalozzi, Walker states that Spencer, unable to read German, had to use an English translation. The obvious source of Spencer's knowledge of Pestalozzian ideas was Biber's *Life of Pestalozzi*, one of the books serving as the point of departure for Spencer's original discussion, "The Art of Education" (1854), which was republished in 1859, with revisions as chapter II of *Education*. In his *Autobiography*, completed in 1894, Spencer refers to inquiries which led him "some forty years ago" to examine the Biber biography. To this must be added the circumstances that all of Spencer's quotations from Pestalozzi appear also in Biber and that Spencer quotes Biber without acknowledgement. The citation of Pestalozzian ideas was chiefly made for purposes of criticism, according to Walker, who infers from this evidence that Pestalozzi was not a significant source of Spencerian educational philosophy.

This leaves but one possible source among the educators mentioned by Spencer, Claude Marcel. Professor Walker maintains that the first volume of *Language as a Means of Mental Culture and International Communication* (1853), Marcel's main work in English, was the book to which Spencer was most indebted. To prove his point, Walker cites cases of agreement between the two educators with respect to several ideas. He goes on to say, "Such a list of agreements between the two writers could easily be extended, but sufficient has been quoted to indicate the avowed source from which Spencer derived many of the ideas which he proceeded to work into the context of his own thought or affiliate to his own personal experience." With respect to educational methods Walker discerns even greater resemblances, pointing out that Marcel is cited or mentioned six

times and that Spencer borrowed more frequently without acknowledgement. Walker adduces other proofs: Spencer's illustrations of the principles of educational method "accord closely" with Marcel's; most of Spencer's seven guiding principles of method "are borrowed or adapted from Marcel"; numerous resemblances and points of agreement exist between both educators with regard to other educational ideas. In his conclusion, Professor Walker states that "Spencer borrowed only what he approved, and in using Marcel he took care to pass over the latter's arguments for nationalizing education, and for the teaching of language, literature, and history."

A careful analysis of the method of establishing Spencer's indebtedness to Marcel will reveal that Professor Walker emphasizes that there were several sources, that Marcel's was the chief work utilized by the British educator. By eliminating the other sources, one by one, he is able to state with assurance that Marcel was Spencer's inspiration. He cites numerous parallels to indicate the resemblance between the educational thinking of both men. All the circumstances of this case are too clear to admit coincidence. Furthermore, there are no closer similarities to any other educator. The evidence seems to point toward the correctness of Walker's analysis and conclusion. On the other hand, Walker does not show by any precise series of steps that Spencer borrowed from Marcel. What he does is to infer from a number of correspondences in both books that dependence existed. That this dependence was possible, even probable, has indeed been demonstrated; that it was actual, has not been shown beyond doubt. To prove that one work is the source of another is a difficult process requiring more detailed and systematic proof than offered by Walker. The most that one can do, in similar instances, is to admit possession of circumstantial evidence and conclude that the source is an "apparent" one.

3. THE DETERMINATION OF PRIMACY. Another phase of the problem of origins is the determination of primacy. Textbooks and articles in educational history, sometimes reflecting hasty preparation and insufficient research, state categorically that certain events or ideas were the first of their type. In many cases, elaborate research is not required

to disprove these statements. The point of the matter is that a scientifically minded student will avoid committing himself as to the primacy of an educational word, deed, or institution. It is best to be cautious by qualifying any statement about primacy with a phrase such as "as far as the present records show."

Several examples will be cited to show how primacy is attributed indiscriminately. The commonly accepted statement that first public-school kindergarten in the United States was established in 1873 in St. Louis is refuted by Douglas E. Lawson, who cites the proceedings and annual reports of the School Committee of Boston to the effect that a public kindergarten was opened in 1870. Professor Lawson maintains that the evidence he adduces "is sufficient to warrant the definite statement that the earliest kindergarten established as part of a public-school system in the United States was that which was established in 1870 in Boston" ("Corrective Note on the Early History of the American Kindergarten," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXV, December, 1939, pp. 699-703). Unfortunately, Professor Lawson overlooks the possibility of the discovery of documents which will indicate an earlier origin of the public-school kindergarten in America.

Recent research has thrust back the date of origin of the junior high school, 1908. Using official source materials, Ruth E. Coyner showed that "the distinction of establishing the first Junior High School might well be claimed by a southern state, namely Florida, in the year 1903" ("The South's First Junior High Schools," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XIX, May, 1942, pp. 323-28). That this was a hasty generalization not based upon an examination of sources outside Florida was evident when Edwin A. Fensch published the results of his study ("The First Junior High School?" *School and Society*, vol. 68, August 28, 1948, pp. 136-37). This investigator discovered that the official school regulations of Mansfield, Ohio, provided in 1879 two courses in the "junior high school" and two in the "senior high school." To reinforce his inference that Mansfield was the probable locale of the first junior high school, Fensch interviewed a retired English teacher who reported that she had attended the

junior and the senior high school and had been graduated from the latter in 1883. This teacher stated that "the junior high school in 1880 was a unit distinct from the senior high school, meeting and reciting in its own room, while the three grades of the senior high school were assigned another room for study and recitation." Fensch, accordingly, concludes that Mansfield "was far in advance of schools that claim to have established the first junior high school in the United States as late as 1908-1910!" The question mark in the title of his article would seem to indicate that Fensch is not ready to insist on Mansfield's claim to absolute primacy.

Many writings on American educational history refer to Samuel R. Hall's *Lectures on School-Keeping* (1829) as the first American work in the field of education. Knight and Monroe, for example, make this statement in their respective textbooks. J. P. Gordy describes Hall's volume as "the first book on the subject ever written in this country" (*Rise and Growth of the Normal-School Idea in the United States*, p. 12). In their foreword to their Hall's *Lectures on School-Keeping*, Arthur D. Wright and George E. Gardiner refer to it as the "first book on education published in the United States in the English Language." This leaves out of account Christopher Dock's *Schulordnung* (1770), and Joseph Neef's *Sketch of a Plan and Method of Education* (1808) and *Method of Instructing Children* (1813), all three published in Philadelphia. Of course, the claim may be made that Dock's book was written in German and that Dock and Neef were born abroad. In that event, the statement should read, "the first book on education written by an American."

Nearly all historians of higher education in the United States begin their works with developments in New England and Virginia in the last half of the seventeenth century. They seem to overlook the educational work of the Spaniards and French in colonial territories now part of continental United States (Florida, New Mexico, Texas, California, Louisiana). Also misleading is the claim that Harvard is "the first American college" (R. Freeman Butts, *The College Charts Its Course*, p. 47). A similar statement is found in Stuart G. Noble's *A History of American Education* (p. 36): "The history of higher

education in seventeenth-century America is the history of Harvard College." The word "American," in these days of the Good Neighbor Policy and hemispherical solidarity, would appear to include Americans both north and south of the Rio Grande. Consequently, a precise historian should take cognizance of the fact that there were some twelve universities and forty colleges in Latin America prior to the founding of Harvard College in 1636. The proper statement of Harvard's status in the history of higher education would seem to be "the first college in the United States."

To the examples of problems of primacy involving educational administration, and literature, one more might be added. Many writers on educational history, such as Boyd and Cubberley, join Brubacher in the opinion that Comenius' *Orbis sensualium pictus* (1657) "was the first textbook to employ pictures as a teaching device" (*A History of the Problems of Education*, p. 202). Criticism of a statement of this kind by I. L. Kandel was made by A. W. Hummel, who revealed that in the late sixteenth century T'u Shih-hsiang compiled an illustrated Chinese textbook, *Yang-mêng t'u-shuo* (*An Illustrated Reader for Elementary Instruction*), and that "there were doubtless many other illustrated school texts in China before this" ("The West's Dangerous Assumption," *American Scholar*, X, Winter, 1941, p. 507). In correcting Kandel, Hummel suggested that the addition of "in the West" would have made the statement about Comenius a "true" one. But even this generalization is far from correct, as reference to H. G. Good's "The 'First' Illustrated School-Books" (*Journal of Educational Research*, XXXV, January, 1942, pp. 338-43) will show. Professor Good emphasizes that "the practice of printing and illustrating books was already two centuries old" before the appearance of the *Orbis pictus*; in other words, it dated from approximately the time of the invention of printing in Western Europe. He cites by title a number of illustrated textbooks antedating the famous book by Comenius. For a study of the origin of illustrated books, together with a careful analysis of the authorship of the pictures in the *Orbis pictus*, the student is referred to an article, "Zur Entstehungsgeschichte des 'Orbis pictus'" (*Zeitschrift für Geschichte*

der *Erziehung und des Unterrichts*, I, 1911, pp. 168-93). The necessity for carefully stating any claim to primacy should be obvious.

It will be helpful for the student to follow the methods of qualified historians in the determination of primacy. William H. Kilpatrick, who has gained renown as an educational philosopher, especially as an interpreter of the doctrines of John Dewey, produced in 1912 an exemplary research study, *The Dutch Schools of New Netherland and Colonial New York*, in which he devoted a full chapter to the establishment of the date of the first school in New Amsterdam. Professor Kilpatrick started by citing the frequently accepted statement that the Dutch established in 1633 the first school in New Amsterdam. From the ecclesiastical records of the classics of New Amsterdam, he was able to show that Adam Rolands (more frequently spelled Roelantsen), whose teaching position in that community is supposed to have commenced in 1633, was not licensed in Amsterdam to proceed to New Netherland as a teacher until August 4, 1637. In view of the persistence with which educational historians clung to the earlier date, Kilpatrick decided to investigate the matter more deeply. He then examined minutely the source of the first "explicit statement" of the 1633 date, Henry W. Dunshee's *History of the School of the Collegiate Reformed Dutch in the City of New York* (1853). Dunshee supported his claim that Roelantsen was the first schoolmaster in New Amsterdam in 1633 by reference to "Albany records, i, 52." He also mentioned a long list of the officers and servants of the Dutch West India Company in 1638, in which Adam Roelantsen "was still the school master," the substantiating reference being "Albany records, ii, 13-15." According to Kilpatrick, "the fact is that in no extant document is there to be found any such list, or anything like it, either for 1633 or for 1638." The next step was to find out the origin of Dunshee's statement. Noting that Dunshee was "not primarily an historian," Kilpatrick reasoned that he may have availed himself of the contents of Edmund B. O'Callaghan's *History of New Netherland* (1845, 1848) and John R. Brodhead's *History of the State of New York* (Vol. I, 1853), volumes written by men who "were incomparably the best students in Mr.

Dunshee's day of the period in question." In neither of the books, both of which were quoted by Dunshee, can be found a reference to a list such as mentioned in Dunshee's book. In fact, since Dunshee acknowledges his profound indebtedness to Brodhead for the contents of his first chapter and cites O'Callaghan no less than nineteen times in the footnotes of the second chapter, it is not too much to say, decided Kilpatrick, that Dunshee made wide use of these distinguished histories. By placing Dunshee's statements regarding Roelantsen alongside those of Brodhead and O'Callaghan, he was able to demonstrate that "O'Callaghan is Mr. Dunshee's actual authority for his assertion about the lists of company's officials."

Having thus disposed of Dunshee's testimony, Kilpatrick proceeded to fix precisely the date of Roelantsen's arrival in New Amsterdam, but not before refuting the allegations of some writers that other teachers preceded Roelantsen. Considering the possibility that Roelantsen may have started to teach in Manhattan in 1633 and returned to Amsterdam for his license in 1637, Kilpatrick maintained that no positive proof to that effect had been presented and that "presumptively, no man teaches first and is certificated afterwards." (This presumption, by the way, is not, and has not been, borne out by practice.) Roelantsen's mere presence in Amsterdam, argued Kilpatrick further, constituted no proof that he taught. Consequently, better evidence would be necessary to establish that fact. Now, the consistory of Amsterdam, which was authorized to license and send ministers, sick-comforters, and schoolmasters to the New World, kept accurate lists of the individuals authorized to fill these posts. Since there was no reference in the records to any schoolmaster in New Netherland before the licensure of Roelantsen in 1637, Kilpatrick felt "authorized to say with some degree of certainty that there was no official schoolmaster in New Netherland prior to the date already assigned [slightly after March 28, 1638] . . . for the beginning of Adam Roelantsen's term of service." This date was obtained after consideration of the sailings and arrivals of the vessels from Amsterdam. Balancing the known evidence with the circumstantial, Kilpatrick arrived at the conclusion that Roelantsen was

"the earliest known schoolmaster in New Netherland"; that he was licensed August 4, 1637 as a teacher and "began his school in Manhattan probably not earlier than April 1, 1638"; that "it is improbable that there was any official schoolmaster licensed from New Netherland prior to August 4, 1637, and it is accordingly improbable that there was any official school prior to the one opened in 1638"; that it is "improbable" that sick-comforters taught in Manhattan before Roelantsen did; that "it is impossible either to affirm or to deny that there was a private school on Manhattan prior to 1638"; and that "the year 1633 has no known or even probable significance in the school history of New Netherland." Kilpatrick's technique of fixing the date of Roelantsen's teaching service is an excellent example of determining primacy as well as of dating an event.

The final case study in primacy is taken from *Laboring and Dependent Classes in Colonial America, 1607-1783*, by Marcus W. Jernegan, a well-known general historian who has shown considerable interest in educational history. In trying to ascertain which town in New England was the first to establish, open, and support a public school, Professor Jernegan made a thorough examination of the town records. As early as April 13, 1635, the town fathers of Boston voted that "our Brother Philemon Pormont, shalbe intreated to become scholemaster, for the teaching and nourtering of children with us." Since there was no vote on this question—in fact, none on any matter respecting a town school for about seven years—, there can be no certainty that this school was opened, or, if indeed opened, that it obtained town support. Subsequent votes indicated the town's change in policy and the increasing assumption of responsibility for the support of the school. None of the town records or those of the General Court of Massachusetts showed any appropriations by Boston for supporting the school between 1635 and December 2, 1643, a fact which led Jernegan to conclude that, assuming that the school was open during this period, the support was private and that "there is, therefore, very meager evidence to substantiate the claim that the town of Boston, in its corporate capacity, supported the first public school in America." Then followed an analysis of all available town

records for Charlestown, Dorchester, Salem, Ipswich, Dedham, New Haven, Hartford, and other communities. A comparison of these sources resulted in the attribution of "firsts": Boston was the first town to select a teacher in town meeting (1635); Charlestown, the first to establish a town-supported school (1636) by appointing a teacher with a fixed salary and length of service; Dorchester, the first to make financial provision for a permanent town school (1639); etc. Jernegan's final conclusion was that "certain towns in New England had, before January 21, 1647, voluntarily established, managed, and supported town schools," and developed the "important principles" of town initiative in establishing public schools or in aiding schools already in existence, of the assumption of responsibility by the town for the financial support of the schools through various means, and of the levying of a rate or tax on property-holders for partial support of the schools. However, all this accounts for public schools in less than one-fifth of the towns of New England. Hence, education in the other towns, whatever there was of it, must have been private and parental. There was no doubt that New England, as a whole, had not yet regarded the school "as a matter of public concern, to be supported by the town, as was the church, for example." The General Court of Massachusetts realized in 1647 that the principles of public education established by the pioneering towns would need central support if they were to gain widespread recognition among the other towns in New England. The stage was now set for the enactment of the famous Massachusetts Law of 1647 ("Old Deluder Satan Act").

It is interesting to note how Professor Jernegan went about the determination of "firsts" in colonial education in New England. He searched for official source materials, balanced them against each other, and worked out a carefully qualified chronological sequence of educational events. At the same time, special note should be taken of Jernegan's technique of generalization and of relating his research to the general situation in the educational history of the period. These processes will be discussed later in this chapter.

4. INSTITUTIONAL ORIGINS. The date of origin of a college is a matter of great concern to alumni and others. Many colleges, to use a

felicitous phrase from Cheyney's *History of the University of Pennsylvania, 1740-1940* are "avid for antiquity," and consequently desire to set their date of founding as early as possible. The underlying assumption is that an older college, particularly one which was founded during the eighteenth century and preferably before the Revolutionary War, carries greater prestige than a younger institution.

Following the example set by Harvard in adopting as its date of founding a date other than when it was actually chartered, a number of colleges did likewise and modified their records. Thus, the University of Pennsylvania, which was chartered as a degree-granting college in 1755, decided to regard 1740, the year when its elementary-school ancestor was opened, as its official date of founding. Shortly afterward, Dickinson College, which was chartered in 1783, decided to adopt 1773, the year of establishment of the grammar school which was a forerunner of the college, as its own date of inception. In the eyes of some university administrators this system of date-shifting is a legitimate and acceptable practice. Regardless of whether this is really so, it appears that this avidity for antiquity is here to stay, thereby adding to the headaches of the student of history.

Under these conditions, comparisons among institutions on the basis of age would be impossible whenever any of them tampered with their founding dates. Nevertheless, there are some objective criteria by which one may determine with accuracy the real age of a college. Frederick C. Waite has pointed out that there are three milestones in the life of a higher institution of learning: the degree-granting charter, the beginning of college-grade instruction, and the actual conferment of degrees ("College Birthdays," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXVI, May, 1940, pp. 236-53). "These three events jointly definitely indicate that an institution has completed the period of adolescence and has become a college in fact, having reached a stage of development where it is actively and completely functional." Professor Waite recognizes such "important and essential preliminary events" in the development of a future institution of higher learning as the opening of a secondary school to pre-

pare students for a college still to be established; the expression of desire by an individual or group for the founding of a college in a certain place; the formulation of plans for a college; efforts at raising funds from private or public sources; the donation of land or money for collegiate purposes; and the erection of college buildings and the appointment of a faculty. Yet, not one of these steps "actually founds the college." Educational history has recorded instances when similar occurrences have not led to the establishment of a collegiate institution. And while the granting of a degree-granting charter has not always resulted in a college or in the immediate founding of a college, it would appear that the date of such an event would have a more direct bearing on the future of college than any of the other events mentioned. There is no genuine justification for regarding the charter date of a secondary school as pertaining to a college. As Waite says, "The fact that an academy was chartered does not make it a college, for the purpose of these academy charters was primarily to permit the receiving of gifts and grants, the holding of real property and the conservation of tangible assets."

So much for illustrations of the problems of origins, primacy, and sources of educational writings. And now a few suggestions to the student who may have to solve these problems. It is imperative that knowledge be obtained of the exact meanings of educational terms used in different ages, countries, and languages. "Public school" means one thing in England and something else in the United States; "Hochschule" in Germany does not signify "high school"; "grammar school" in the twentieth century is quite distinct from the same expression in the seventeenth century; the continental academy in the eighteenth century was not identical with the contemporary American institution employing that designation. Good use should be made of etymological dictionaries and scientific treatises in educational history in order to avoid confusions in terminology which result in erroneous conclusions. It is also good historical policy to refrain from absolute conclusions when one attempts to establish origins or primacy. Since nobody can be certain that he has examined all the pertinent evidence and that no further documents will be

discovered, it is more modest, and decidedly more accurate, to qualify one's conclusions with such words as "apparently," "presumably," and the like. Lessons may be taken from the methods utilized by the scholars cited in the previous pages.

5. THE ESTABLISHMENT OF INFLUENCE. As stated elsewhere in this chapter, the determination of the influence of educational ideas and methods is closely related to the problem of origins and sources. A point of difference is that, whereas the search for the sources of an idea involves the examination of a relatively limited number of authors, the study of an influence might lead the research worker into a wide variety of channels. It is perhaps for this reason that historians do not recommend that beginners undertake such difficult problems. According to Morize, "they demand too extensive and advanced a knowledge not only of one complete literature, but of several." Gottschalk states, "Since the idea of *influence* is rather abstract and there is no generally accepted standard of measurement for it, such an effort is likely to lead to error, or at least disagreement among the experts" (*The Use of Personal Documents in History, Anthropology and Sociology*, p. 58). A study of an influence will be too much to attempt, under ordinary circumstances, for a semester research report. A dissertation is a better medium for such a study, but it should be remembered that the determination of influence requires application of special and delicate techniques. All too frequently, students preparing a research study for an advanced degree will more or less lightheartedly tack on several pages of the "influence" of their subject without any awareness of what the proof of influence really entails.

Before the process of determining influence can be described, it will be necessary to explain the term. *Influence* connotes sudden change, modification, or transformation in a person's mode of thinking or action as a result of contact with, or exposure to, another individual's ideas or deeds. A distinction must be made between *influence* and other terms signifying dependence—*impact*, *inspiration*, and *imitation*. Without devising additional definitions, it is clear that these expressions indicate lesser degrees of dependence than *influence*.

does. It is also worthwhile to realize that the *reputation* of an individual and the *success* of a work are somewhat related to the concept of *influence*.

No influence, according to Morize, "flows in a continuous current"; rather, it exhibits tendencies toward "eclipse and emergence" at various times, depending on the taste and mood of the period. An influence may be initiated and accelerated by the propaganda of a person of prestige, by acceptance in a foreign country, by the satisfaction of a need or desire, and by procedures inherent in the processes of publishing and distributing books. Conversely, these procedures may operate toward retarding or diminishing influences. In this connection the term *negative influence* might be employed to characterize debates, polemics, and refutations which result from the appearance of a work.

To begin the process of establishing an influence one must be prepared to show, at the very least, that educator E knew the work of educator F and that he made use of the latter's ideas in a manner that modified his own. It is insufficient, as Gottschalk says, "to establish a similarity between two sets of ideas, and to argue *post hoc, ergo propter hoc*." Herbert Spencer, in the example cited earlier in this chapter, discussed certain principles of Pestalozzi which appealed to him, but he obtained those second-hand, via Biber. In many cases the influence may be removed by even more stages. The similarity of ideas need not necessarily indicate the presence of influence, but rather that the two educators may have derived inspiration from a third party or from knowledge common to many in the profession. Moreover, the factor of coincidence or chance cannot be overlooked.

The general influence of a book can be traced by exploring thoroughly the extent of its diffusion; that is to say, one must determine the frequency of editions and reprints, the number of copies sold in the original form and in translation, and related information obtainable from publication and library sources. T. A. Fitz Gerald was able to estimate Cervantes' popularity on the ground that there have been thus far 1657 editions of *Don Quixote* in 54 languages ("Cervantes' Popularity Abroad," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXII,

March, 1948, pp. 171-178). But this merely shows that the book was available for reading, but not that it was actually read or that it exerted influence. Even library circulation figures, a better index of the spread of a work, are hardly usable as precise measures of influence. What can be said, after the accumulation of such statistics, is that the book enjoyed *success*. Such best sellers as the one-volume condensation of Arnold J. Toynbee's *A Study of History* can scarcely be considered as having modified the public mind, particularly since it is well known that the book was purchased by many people who could not or never expected to read it. Nor can Lancelot Hogben's *Mathematics for the Million*, another best seller, be regarded as a work which has influenced thousands, let alone millions. That some influence resulted from the publication of these works may be presumed, but cannot be verified without experimentation. For earlier periods, it is virtually impossible to estimate the popular influence of a book.

Influence of a book may also be traced through reviews and discussions appearing in newspapers and magazines. As in the case of the determination of a book's sources, the incidence of borrowing and imitation by other writers is some indication of attention paid to a work, of a favorable reception, but not of a clear-cut influence, certainly not without further proof.

Frequent mention or quotation of educator C by educator D does not necessarily presuppose an influence, since many a writer likes to hitch his wagon to a star. In fact, one might go so far as to say that D's open acknowledgment of his indebtedness to C's ideas does not prove the presence of influence, but rather D's feeling that C influenced him. It would first have to be shown that D's ideas could not possibly have stemmed from anyone other than C, that they would not have originated without the impetus derived from C, or that they would have been profoundly different but for the effect of C. In brief, a causal relationship must be established, with extraneous factors isolated and satisfactorily explained. Undoubtedly this is a difficult thing to do, but it is necessary if the conditions of the definition of influence are to be met. To quote W. T. Jones ("On the Meaning

of the Term 'Influence' in Historical Studies," *Ethics*, LIII, April, 1943, pp. 192-201), the requirements for determining influence

make history a more painful and a less ambitious study. Doubtless it is much easier and much grander to write down glibly that 'Kant's work stimulated a growth of interest in the notion of experience' or that 'Montesquieu's influence on the founding fathers is marked'—and to pass on to fields and pastures new. But I venture to think that this is not history. It is not poetry, either; at least it is not good poetry. It is dishonest if it is conscious; it is stupid if it is not. In historical studies we must, I think, be prepared to accept the same strenuous values which hold in other fields of intellectual inquiry. We must, that is to say, prefer to know what we mean and to know what we know, even if it be little, rather than to confuse ourselves and mislead others through the appearance of meaning and knowing much. We must learn to be content to do well and soundly what we can; not, in striving after great things, to do nothing.

This does not mean that it is well-nigh impossible to prove the existence of influence. The advanced student should not give up hope of ever accomplishing this feat. In the meantime, with discretion still the better part of valor, it is preferable to prove part of an influence than none at all. What this means is that one might go far toward determining an influence, and, in the absence of indisputable proof, might be able to show a *presumptive, apparent, or probable* influence. This royal line of succession falls short of the *actual* influence, which is the hardest to demonstrate beyond doubt.

There are a number of serviceable leads for the beginning of the study of an influence. Some knowledge about an educator's travels will offer hints of possible influence. It will be recalled, for example, that John Dewey visited many foreign countries after World War I. He spent varying amounts of time in these lands and conferred with school officials. Here is a fruitful field for the determination of actual influence. The research worker will have to describe accurately the educational conditions prior to Dewey's visit, the actual contacts between Dr. Dewey and the foreign educators, and the changes in

the educational system which are attributable to the American educator and to no one else. Another avenue toward the establishment of an influence is the examination of the writings and deeds of an educator's friends, associates, acquaintances, correspondents, and pupils. Thus, the study of the educational ideas of William H. Kilpatrick will yield better results in this respect than those of an educator who has little or no relationship to Dewey or to his writings. At this point one must also consider that a highly well-known educator of the stamp of Dewey may reach out and influence others through his disciples and through the writings of educators whose ideas were affected by Dewey's thinking. But this sort of influence would seem to be most difficult to trace.

Before concluding this preliminary discussion of influence, it should be emphasized that there must be an explanation for the intellectual relationship between two educators. It is not fully profitable to exert oneself to prove an influence without accounting for it. What the student must do is to relate the process whereby an influence is generated, intensified, and matured to the temper of the times, to the social, cultural, economic, political, and, often, religious milieu. In this context the influence takes on a deeper meaning.

There are several cautions to observe in research concerning influence. First, the student should not fall victim to the obsession of the omnipresent influence. As is well known, when one becomes wrapped up in a subject, he begins to note resemblances to it in almost anything that he observes. It is very easy then to leap to conclusions about the influence of the educator one is studying over another. The student should maintain his scholarly equilibrium by not moulding another person's ideas into the pattern of his educator's. The possibility of multiple influences upon a person's thinking is too great to be summarily discounted.

Now follow several examples from educational literature illustrating how different writers tackle the problem of influence. In the article previously cited, Averill writes: "For the contributions of Dr. Thorndike, both to psychology and to education, I have had always the most profound respect. Evidence of my professional

indebtedness to him may be seen abundantly in the fact that the treatment of the instincts in the first psychological book which I ever wrote reflected the potent influence of his *Original Nature of Man* upon my own early thinking. No man has more deeply influenced American education." Dr. Averill's confession of indebtedness should not be taken lightly, especially since he provides a clue toward verification. With regard to the final sentence, however, his testimony becomes extremely weak, because Averill universalizes an impression which is probably true with respect to himself. The validity of this statement can only be ascertained after a laborious, time-consuming research and it is questionable whether the game is worth the candle.

In *Comenius and the Beginnings of Educational Reform* (New York: Scribner, 1900, p. 146), Will S. Monroe comments as follows: "While he does not mention Comenius by name, even a cursory reading of the *Emile* furnishes abundant evidence of Rousseau's familiarity with the writings of the Moravian reformer, if not at first hand, then through the writings of others." What impelled Monroe toward this judgment was the discovery of "some striking parallels" after a comparative study of the writings of Comenius and Rousseau. Here is a clear instance of a writer reasoning from resemblances. Nor is Monroe certain whether Rousseau knew Comenius' ideas directly or through the ideas of other educators. Nevertheless, he showed no hesitation about arriving at a definite conclusion.

Watt Stewart and William M. French estimated "The Influence of Horace Mann on the Educational Ideas of Domingo Faustino Sarmiento" (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, XX, February, 1940, pp. 12-31) on the basis of the Argentine educator's confession of his indebtedness, his reading and acceptance of Mr. Mann's *Seventh Annual Report*, and his talks with the American educator. In addition to these contacts, the authors call attention to the similarities between the topics and statements in Sarmiento's writings and the themes and ideas in Mann's educational pronouncements. Accordingly, they conclude that "Sarmiento's viewpoints were deeply conditioned by Mann, especially in view of the former's

specific acknowledgment of Mann's influence." A careful analysis of this article, together with a review of the full history of the relationship between both educators, would lend much credence to the authors' conclusions. There was no doubt of Sarmiento's knowledge of Mann's work and ideas, of his admiration for and inspiration by Mann, of the parallels in the writings of both men. Yet, does Sarmiento's own acknowledgment of indebtedness dispose of the educational inspiration that he had before he knew of Mann's ideas? As Stewart and French state, Sarmiento was a recognized educator in his own right, having written on educational problems and having founded and directed the first South American normal school in Santiago, Chile. Furthermore, the authors cite Sarmiento's statement to the effect that his reading of Cousin's report on Prussian education was responsible for the creation of the Santiago normal school in 1843, two years before he read Mann's report. In the same source, *Las escuelas* (1865), Sarmiento referred to Charles Brooks and himself as having "found themselves without knowing it in the prosecution of the same work with Horace Mann, in the same paths." Evidently, many of Sarmiento's educational ideas were deeply ingrained before his contacts with North America, some originated during his extended visit to Europe, and others were undoubtedly inspired by Mann's thinking. It may be that the inspiration derived from the Massachusetts educator modified Sarmiento's educational convictions and practice. All this, however, must be proved by adducing pertinent evidence, something which has not as yet been done. Hence, the most that can be said of the intellectual relationship between Mann and Sarmiento, subject to further research, was that the former apparently exerted an influence over the latter, although not as profoundly as Stewart and French maintain. Sarmiento's confession of indebtedness must be juxtaposed with his statement about his reading of Cousin's report. Perhaps Sarmiento's description of Mann as "the Apostle Horace" and "the Saint Paul" of education, as well as his remark that he followed "on the footsteps of Mr. Mann," stemmed in part from his desire to please the widow of Horace Mann. Believers in the dubious theory of the

existence of national character traits might even explain Sarmiento's expressions of praise as typical Latin exaggerations.

Horace Mann's influence is also the theme of an article, "Some Evidence of Horace Mann's Influence in the South" (*School and Society*, Vol. 65, January 18, 1947, pp. 33-37), by Edgar W. Knight. Here Professor Knight reproduces several letters, "apparently hitherto neglected," which were written by Southerners to Mr. Mann and which indicate, he believes, the educator's influence. The first letter, dated November 8, 1845, was from R. B. Gooch of Richmond, who represented a committee appointed "to devise and recommend a system of public education for the state, upon an enlarged and liberal plan." This gentleman requested "some suggestions in aid of our beginning a radical reform of the state of things in which we are placed" and promised that anything from Mann's pen, "whether of argument or of fact, will receive the attentive ear" of the educational convention to which the committee was to report. Mr. Mann's reply was dated November 15, 1845, and the report of Gooch's committee was submitted to the General Assembly of Virginia on December 15, 1845. This report, together with Mann's letters, was published in the *Journal of the House of Delegates, 1845-46*. To credit Mann with influence under these conditions would be to stretch the meaning of that elusive term. Professor Knight, moreover, offers no additional evidence that would help establish more than a presumptive influence at the most. The other letters reprinted in this article concern a request by a county commissioner in Mississippi for educational publications and for suggestions "relative to the subject of common schools," a plea by a member of a masonic school committee in Alabama for aid in obtaining teachers, and a request by the Grand Lodge of Odd Fellows of North Carolina for "such information on the subject of Normal Schools as will enable the Grand Lodge to act understandingly in carrying out any scheme it may choose to adopt relative thereto." There is nothing in these letters, or in Professor Knight's discussion, to indicate real influence emanating from Mann. It is certainly more accurate to refer to Mr. Mann's "reputation in the South" and to the Southern educators' "high respect for

the diligence and tenacity and also the successful achievements of the New England leader," as Knight does in his explanatory paragraphs, than to speak of "Horace Mann's Influence in the South."

One does not expect to find precise proofs of influence in textbooks in educational history. Nevertheless, there is disappointment when a recognized scholar's textbook fails to mention the evidence upon which his conclusions regarding influence are based.

In his *History of Educational Thought* (New York: American Book Co., 1945, p. 160), Robert Ulich writes:

Montaigne's influence worked directly on men who determined modern educational method and theory as decidedly as Locke and Rousseau. Much of what we consider progressive practices in schools today was anticipated by the French nobleman more than three centuries ago. Careful observations of all the conditions requisite for human maturation, the interaction of physical and mental training, the use of subject matter as a means for the development of personality and the art of living, the understanding of the learning process as fostering the child's initiative, and consequently the transformation of the school into a center of activities related to the child's natural life and future—all these ideas can be traced back to Montaigne.

Professor Ulich presents no evidence other than the above to support his assertion. It should be pointed out that anticipating other men's ideas is not tantamount to influencing them. Moreover, Montaigne was by no means the only educator who held the views described by Ulich; hence, it is very possible that other educators also contributed to the contemporary progressive practices.

The author may be pardoned for citing an earlier study of his as an example of an attempt at the determination of influence (William W. Brickman, *The Contribution of Hermann Lietz to Education*, unpublished, Ph.D. dissertation, New York University, 1938). In this work he traces the possible influence of Lietz' *Landerziehungsheim* (educational home in the country) on the German public school by means of the following indications: Lietz' books and articles about his schools, reviews of the books in the professional

journals, doctoral dissertations on the schools and their work, references to and discussions of Lietz' achievements in pedagogical books and encyclopedias, and visits to the schools by public school officials, teachers, and student teachers. In addition, several educators have called attention to specific practices which they claim were borrowed from Lietz' schools by public educational institutions. While all this does not constitute grounds for concluding that Lietz actually influenced the German public schools, it does point up the possibility. A stronger case might be made for Lietz' profound impact on private education in Germany and elsewhere in Europe and America. Gustav Wyneken, founder of the *Freie Schulgemeinde* Wickersdorf, a former teacher in the *Landerziehungsheim* and at one time an associate of its founder, admitted not only that he would never have opened his school had he not had the school of Lietz as his model, but also that he had adopted many specific practices. To appreciate more keenly the testimonial value of Wyneken's acknowledgment, it should be realized that he founded his school after a violent quarrel with Lietz. Consequently, Wyneken cannot be accused of gilding the lily, and his statement regarding the significance of Lietz' work may be taken at face value. In addition to Wyneken's school, many other private schools in Germany and elsewhere are mentioned as having borrowed, directly or indirectly, the practices and the spirit of Lietz' *Landerziehungsheim*. Possibly stronger proof than the foregoing is that adduced in support of the assertion that the *Landerziehungsheim* influenced the Austrian *Bundeszerziehungsanstalten* (federal educational institutes). After World War I, Austrian school officials visited the schools of Lietz to obtain suggestions toward the establishment of a new type of school. Upon their return to Austria, these officials reported favorably on the schools, and shortly afterward the government organized five institutions according to the pattern observed in Germany. According to V. Belohoubek, a founder of the new Austrian schools, these federal institutes were modeled upon the educational ideas and methods of Lietz' schools. Beryl Parker, an American educator who studied the institutes at first hand and wrote a doctoral dissertation

embodying her findings, states that the *Bundeserziehungsanstalten* "closely resemble" their German prototypes "as to social ideals and school procedures." It is quite reasonable to assume the existence of an apparent influence at least.

This discussion of influence in educational history would be incomplete without the citation of two additional types, influence by transplantation and influence of a periodical. In his chapter, "The University in the United States of America" (Edward Bradby, editor, *The University Outside Europe*, London, Oxford University Press, 1939, pp. 38-65), W. H. Cowley describes the major foreign influences on American higher education. He indicates the influence of English higher education on Harvard by pointing out that the latter was founded by graduates of Emmanuel College of Cambridge who transplanted the customs, curriculum, and practices of their Puritan alma mater. It is not usually rewarding in this instance to search for other influences, since it stands to reason that the early Massachusetts settlers would establish a college similar to the one at which they had studied. They could hardly be expected to organize a kind of institution with which they were either personally unfamiliar or ideologically unsympathetic. Further, comparisons might be made between Harvard and Emmanuel to determine whether the latter was indeed the model of the American college. Such procedures are necessary to test Cowley's claim of influence, since he does not give any specific corroborative evidence.

The influence of the most important American educational periodical during the nineteenth century has been traced meticulously and exhaustively in Richard E. Thursfield's "Henry Barnard's *American Journal of Education*" (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1945). To begin with, Professor Thursfield admits that the enthusiastic praise of the periodical contained in letters to the editor and in printed statements might not be completely sincere. In searching for "more convincing testimony," he studied the subscription lists of the journal and noted the wide range of persons in the educational profession who received it regularly—state and city superintendents of schools, college president and professors, teachers, principals of

normal schools, academies, seminaries, high schools, and grammar schools, and prominent citizens interested in education. University, normal-school, and other libraries made Barnard's journal available to numerous instructors and students. Professor Thursfield stresses the role of this periodical as a favorite reference work of educational leaders, taking cognizance of the fact that "subscriptions did not necessarily mean use any more than commendation positively signified influence." As an example of how the *American Journal of Education* might have inspired educational activity he quotes from a letter sent by H. T. Morton, an Arkansas educator, to the editor: "It occurs to me that the best method of educating the colored population, will be by means of Industrial Schools after the plans mentioned in your journal." An additional avenue of influence was by way of the topical volumes which reprinted portions of the journal. Abroad, representative educators made use of Barnard's periodical and praised it highly. Finally, frequent citation of and reference to the journal in textbooks in educational history and other phases of pedagogy, monographs, syllabi, bibliographies, and encyclopedias, along with testimonials to its value by the writers of these publications, furnish evidence as to its influence in the area of pedagogical literature. From all these facts it may be inferred that Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, beyond a doubt, exerted a specific type of influence in American education. This evidence may not be as precise as in the case of personal influence, but it is nevertheless strong enough to permit the conclusion.

6. THE DETERMINATION OF AUTHORSHIP. The problem of authorship has probably been given less attention in educational than in general and literary history. Under this rubric, the technique of determining who wrote a particular document, the detection of interpolations, omissions, and corrections, as well as of plagiarism, and the exposure of fabrications, forgeries, and hoaxes will be considered.

Historians have tended to accept as author of a published or manuscript document the name appearing on the title page or at the end of the work in question. This means that, unless there exists a reasonable doubt, the authorship may be taken at full face value.

However, there are types of documents, such as unknown, posthumous, anonymous, and pseudonymous works, toward which, according to Morize, "our first attitude should be of prudence if not mistrust." The authentication of authorship, like that of source materials, rests upon external and internal criticism. Thus, letters and other personal documents help to show the relationship between the life of an author and his writings. Contemporary or later writers may refer to a book as having been written by a specific author, and if their testimony can be validated on the basis of competence and independence, then one may assume their correctness in attributing authorship. As far as internal criticism is concerned, comparison of the style and content of the unknown manuscript with known samples of an author's work may lead to the identification of the writer of the former. Specifically, as Garraghan and Morize point out, this includes careful study of such matters as formalities of the organization of the document, the peculiarities of language, diction and style, handwriting, and allusions to facts and persons. Morize warns, however, that the language and style of the same writer may vary over a period of time and that "allusions to works published after the one under discussion may mean only that the books mentioned were known and read before their publication, as often happened a few centuries ago."

Professor Thomas Woody furnishes a case study of attribution of authorship ("Of History and Its Method," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XV, March, 1947, pp. 188-89). Some time ago he found in the University of Pennsylvania Archives a manuscript lacking author, date, or place of composition. This manuscript is apparently old and in rather good condition, but it bears no external sign of either gift or purchase, so that it is difficult to obtain any clue from that direction. Entitled "Observations for the Explication of the Foregoing Accounts," this document appears to be either an original manuscript, or part of one, which was drawn up in reply to an inquiry for information regarding the organization and operation of the *Pädagogium Regii*; or a translation of a printed report of that institution. Examining the content and noting instances of awkward

English, Dr. Woody reasons that the manuscript, whether original or translated, was composed by a person unfamiliar with the language. Moreover, it is quite certain that the translator or author expected that his document would be chiefly used in Pennsylvania, inasmuch as he painstakingly mentioned sums of money in terms of Pennsylvania currency. Other internal evidence discloses that the document refers to the *Pädagogium regii*, an institution established by August Hermann Francke in 1695 at Halle, Germany, and that it was apparently written "quite some time" after the founding of this institution. A reference to 1726 fixes the manuscript's earliest date of composition. With all these facts and inferences, admits Professor Woody, very little could be accomplished toward ascertaining the name of the author of the manuscript. Thereupon he examined the Trustees' Minutes for further data and discovered that the trustees in 1750-51 had requested a committee to draw up regulations for the recently founded institution. Finding this appointed task difficult and desiring enlightenment from the experience of others, the committee proposed to the trustees that a translation be procured of "a Pamphlet written in the German Language, recommended by the Revd. Mr. Whitefield, containing the Rules and Orders observed in the celebrated . . . [Pädagogium] in Halle." The minutes indicate that the trustees agreed to this suggestion. "From the foregoing," concludes Dr. Woody, "it seems reasonably certain, but the proof is not complete, that the English manuscript *may be the translation* of a document, which, presumably, Mr. Whitefield had in his possession." This finding is supported by the fact that Whitefield's letters and other writings reflect enthusiastic admiration for Francke's philanthropic institutions. At this point, Dr. Woody remarks, "Further search would probably lead to discovery of the original pamphlet, or a copy of the same, from which this *MS.* translation was made, and many other matters. But this will suffice to indicate the initial steps in attempting to discover authorship, place, time, and purpose in a document where none of these are given." One should not feel disappointed at the solution left hanging in mid-air, since the technique has been described by Woody with clarity. What is more

significant than the knowledge of the exact name of the author, in this particular instance at least, is the apparently accurate explanation of the contents of the document and of its relationship to its times. It is also instructive to take note of the caution exhibited by a well-trained educational historian.

Additional examples of attempts at solving problems of authorship, too lengthy and involved to be recapitulated here, may be found in Charles H. Haskins' *Studies in the History of Mediaeval Science* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1924, Chapter XVIII) and in John W. Adamson's '*The Illiterate Anglo-Saxon*' (Cambridge, University Press, 1946, Chapters II and VI). The former deals with the authorship of a twelfth-century textbook, while the latter treats of a biography of Alfred the Great and a medieval student's handbook. Haskins was a foremost American specialist in medieval history who paid considerable attention to education, and Adamson was a leading British authority on research in educational history.

The discussion of authorship of documents brings to mind the allied question of authenticity; that is to say, assuming that the author's name is known, it is necessary to determine whether what is purported to be a person's written work is actually his own. Frequently, a busy man or one lacking ability to write engages a ghost writer to do his research and to prepare his book or article, and then all he does is to insert his name as author. It is well known that in military units and large corporations—and possibly also in universities and school systems—it is but mere routine for a subordinate to compose a document to be signed by the superior. Consequently, in some research problems, it may be advisable for the historian to familiarize himself with the actual style and administrative procedures of a person whose work he is studying. Comparisons, such as outlined previously, will help establish whether or not a certain individual wrote the document with which he was credited.

Another practice that beclouds authorship is that of plagiarism. A plagiarist takes another man's writing or ideas, dispenses with quotation marks or other signs of true origin, and releases the borrowed material as his own. One does not need to borrow a complete work

without acknowledgment—indeed this is hardly possible unless the source is virtually obscure or forgotten. In many cases the plagiarized material consists of pages, paragraphs, or even sentences. In the last-named instance, it is possible that the borrowing was unintentional, since it is fairly easy to copy a brief statement and to lose the quotation marks. It is worth remembering that plagiarism was not considered a serious matter as late as the nineteenth century, and even today one sometimes meets individuals, including students and instructors, who treat lightly the ethical question of using another person's ideas and expressions without due acknowledgment. The discovery of plagiarism may be rendered difficult not only because, as stated before, the borrower may have utilized an unknown or antiquated source, but also because he may have translated from a foreign language. Consequently, unless one is very much at home in a certain field, and possesses knowledge of its writings over and above that shown by most investigators, he will be continually confronted with obstacles should he attempt to demonstrate plagiarism.

The following examples are cited to illustrate borrowing, rather than plagiarism. This distinction is made for two reasons. First, in nearly every instance the material in question was small, and was very possibly done unwittingly. Second, charges of plagiarism made against living writers may bring about unpleasant consequences. One example has already been cited earlier in the chapter in connection with the discussion of origins. Another example of borrowing is mentioned by H. G. Good ("Historical Research in Education," *Educational Research Bulletin*, IX, January 8, 1930, pp. 16-17). Professor Good quotes a sentence from a document, *A Contemporary Account of Horace Mann's Reply to the Boston Teachers*, which was quoted in an anonymous article, "Mr. Mann and the Teachers of the Public Schools," published in the *North American Review* (LX, 1845, pp. 224-46). The sentence read as follows: "Though he dislikes the use of the rod for children, he evidently has no objection to whipping schoolmasters, and in this case, he has certainly plied the birch with remarkable dexterity and strength of arm." The same sentence, with the tenses of the verbs changed and with a reference

to the *North American Review*, appeared in B. A. Hinsdale's *Horace Mann and the Common School Revival in the United States* (New York: Scribner, 1898, p. 193). In Cubberley's 1919 edition of *Public Education in the United States*, furthermore, there was included the following sentence without quotation marks or source: "Though he objected to severe punishment for children, he apparently had no objection to giving a sound drubbing to a body of schoolmasters."

A more serious example of borrowing concerns a well-known history of American education written by a recognized scholar, which obviously was the source of some material in an orientation textbook for teachers. The historical volume, which will be identified as X, preceded the orientation text, to be known as Y, by over a dozen years. Here are a number of parallels:

X

By the close of the seventeenth century, as has been stated, many of the forces which at first required a compact form of settlement had begun to lose their hold. With the decline in dominance of the old religious motive, new interests arose. One of these was to scatter out and live on the farming land. New settlements accordingly arose within the towns, miles away from the meeting-and schoolhouses. To attend church or town meeting in winter was not always easy, and for children to attend the town school was impossible.

Y

By the close of the seventeenth century many of the forces that required a compact form of settlement—fear of savages, religious fervor, and the traditions of the mother country—began to lose their hold. It was safe, and was now necessary, to move farther away from the town center. Accordingly, new settlements arose within the area officially constituting the town, miles away from the meeting house and the schoolhouse. Also, life on the isolated farm, now so universal in America, was developed. Under these circumstances, it was impossible for the children, especially the younger tots, to attend the town school regularly.

The italicized words represent practically identical phraseology. There are sufficient similar ideas and phrases for an inference of conscious borrowing. There are no quotation marks or any other form of acknowledgment.

X

. . . in 1842, the legislature, following the best eastern practices of the time, abolished the district system in Detroit and provided for the organization of a unified system of schools for the city, under a city board of education.

Y

In 1842, the state legislature abolished the district school system in Detroit and provided for the organization of a unified system of schools under a city board of education.

This time X is cited, but for quotations and a statement appearing earlier on the page. It is plain that Y was well acquainted with the history written by X. In fact, there are several long quotations from various parts of X in the orientation volume. It is interesting to note that the first passage is located in an early chapter, while the second is in the middle of the book. A third illustration of borrowing will now be given, with the passage taken from the end of X.

X

As early as 1869 this State [Mass.] enacted legislation permitting the consolidation of school districts, and in 1882 finally abolished the district system by law and restored the old town system from which the district system had evolved. . . . After this abolition of the district system, the consolidation of schools in Massachusetts became more rapid, and by about 1890 the idea spread to other States. Ohio, in 1892, was the first State West of the Alleghenies to permit the union of two or more districts to form a consolidated school.

Y

In 1869, Massachusetts enacted legislation permitting the consolidation of school districts, and in 1882, finally abolished the district system by law and restored the old town system from which the district system had evolved. By 1890, the idea had spread to other states. In 1892, Ohio was the first state west of the Alleghenies to permit the union of two or more districts to form a consolidated school.

It is barely conceivable that these correspondences are fortuitous or that both X and Y emanate from a common source. The fact that Y cites the proper page of X at the end of the paragraph containing the above passage lends force to the supposition that the material was borrowed without quotation marks. This is not the place to discuss the question of intent, but it seems clear that there is a direct line between X and Y, certainly as far as the quoted statements are concerned. The rest of Y, it should be noted, may now be called into question.

The reader should not get the impression of the necessity of hyper-criticism. A historian should be as cautious and conscientious as possible. Evidently writers are prone to error, even to the extent of omitting such significant items as quotation marks. One who has the time, patience, and energy will undoubtedly discover more instances of borrowing. The present author will willingly confess that he has drawn upon the ideas and writings of many individuals. Very few educational thoughts are original. But the point of the

matter is that the present author has endeavored as much as he could to give credit to the sources of his borrowings and to avoid using another writer's words unless protectively enclosed within quotation marks.

Another phase of the problem of authorship is what Garraghan calls "incomplete authenticity." This term comprises interpolations, corrections, changes, omissions, and censorship performed in a document by hands other than the author's. Occurrences of this kind may be detected with greater or less ease in original manuscripts and typescripts. All that is required is a keen eye to discern differences in the handwriting, paper, ink, and so on. Furthermore, as Garraghan shows, interpolations and changes may be recognized by sudden modifications in diction and style, by logical inconsistencies, anachronisms, and other internal signs. However, Garraghan counsels caution before one arrives at conclusions, since "even competent authors will sometimes err in making additions to their own work." The important task is to distinguish between interpolations made by the author himself and those made by others.

Historians are familiar with the fact that George Washington received considerable help from James Madison and Alexander Hamilton in the composition of the celebrated Farewell Address. H. G. Good cites W. C. Ford, editor of Washington's writings, as authority for the judgment that the following sentences were Hamilton's, rather than Washington's: "Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened." It is known that Washington requested Hamilton to revise and complete the address, so that it is not at all surprising to find passages written by the latter. In view of this example and of the Mann quotation referred to previously, Professor Good concludes that "one cannot safely argue from the inclusion of language in a document that it was originally written by the immediate author" ("Historical Research in Education," *Educational Research Bulletin*, IX, January 8, 1930, pp. 16-17).

Whatever has been said regarding the detection of interpolations applies also to omissions and, to some extent, to fabrications. Mention has already been made of how portions of Diderot's *Encyclopédie* have been restored as a result of the discovery of the censored page proofs. There are other examples of reestablishing a tampered text, but the author does not know of any in the field of education.

Fabrication is an overall term which might include forgeries of documents or parts of them, and hoaxes. Among the famous fabrications of history are the False Decretal, the Donation of Constantine, the verse of Thomas Chatterton and James Macpherson (*Ossian*), and the Minor Collection of Lincoln letters. Recent publications have revealed the fictitiousness in "The Diary of a Public Man" (Frank M. Anderson, *The Mystery of "A Public Man,"* Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1948) and the spuriousness in the Horn Papers (Arthur P. Middleton and Douglass Adair, "The Mystery of the Horn Papers," *William and Mary Quarterly*, Third Series, IV, October, 1947, pp. 409-45). The well-known history of the bathtub by H. L. Mencken, an admitted hoax, has been accepted as genuine by many responsible persons ever since it was first published in 1917. The tradition of fabrication has enjoyed a hoary history. According to Andrew Long, "Indeed, if we believe Greek literary tradition, literary forgery was common as soon as the art of writing was used for literary purposes" (Introduction to J. A. Farrer, *Literary Forgeries*, London, Longmans, Green, 1907, pp. xiii-xiv). Fortunately, education has escaped these fabrications, perhaps, as Good, Barr, and Scates intimate, because "there may be no great temptation to perpetrate hoaxes, frauds, and forgeries in the field of education."

7. SATIRE. Brief mention might be given to satire, irony, burlesque, and parody, which are not always distinguished as such by excessively serious schoolmen. The writings of Stephen Leacock, a great humorist who was professor of political economy at McGill University, are illustrations of educational satire. No one should conclude, however, that Leacock's opinion on education cannot be regarded as authentic. There is a consistency about the Leacockian philosophy of education in his frankly fictional pieces, as well as in his "straight"

work, such as *My Discovery of England*. The delightful fantasy, *The Saber-Tooth Curriculum*, written by Harold Benjamin under the transparent pseudonym of J. Abner Peddiwell, is another fine example of educational satire which retains its sting after the end of laughter. Edgar W. Knight recently reprinted a forgotten essay by Francis Hopkinson which was written "with mock seriousness" ("An Improved Plan of Education, 1775: An Eighteenth-Century Curriculum," *School and Society*, vol. 69, June 11, 1949, pp. 409-11). Some years ago, the present author described in detail the requirements for a desirable new appellation, "The Super-Doctor's Degree" (*School and Society*, vol. 66, July 19, 1947, pp. 33-35). As a consequence several rebuttals to his proposals were published in educational journals and a number of letters were sent to the author. Most of these comments failed to note the irony in the article, but enough of them saw it to remove the possibility that the satire was so thin that nobody but the author could discern it. The student must be alert for traces of irony in educational writings. Inferences might be made by reading between the lines, but they should be labeled as such.

8. STATISTICS IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY. The proper use of statistics has been neglected in writings on educational history. Very frequently, delvers into educational conditions of earlier decades have either overlooked statistical data entirely or they have tended to accept them without due regard to their limitations as evidence. At best, statistics may be inaccurate, since they are collected under conditions which are conducive to error at every stage of compilation. At worst, statistics may be the result of manipulation of data in order to achieve a desired conclusion. This is especially evident in reports by national governments on the status of illiteracy in their respective domains. Consequently, it is essential that students evaluate historical statistics before they use them in their researches. One general example may be given to illustrate evaluation of statistics. Figures testifying to a high level of education in a country at a particular time should be broken down—number of schools, students, libraries, etc., per 1000 (or other base unit) of population; average duration of instructional period per individual; the extent to which educational

opportunities have been actually enjoyed by a representative cross-section of the population. This is admittedly a tall order, but statistics have no inherent sacredness about them. With reference to this illustration, Garraghan points out one should not infer that every citizen in a country with a high-grade educational system has attained that level.

A better notion of the function of statistics in educational history may be obtained through an analysis of research studies. In "Reappraisal of the State School Systems of the Pre-Civil-War Period" (*Elementary School Journal*, XLI, October, 1940, pp. 118-29). Herman G. Richey utilizes educational statistics derived chiefly from the United States Census, and checks them against available reports of state school officials. Recognizing the inaccuracy of the figures, a fact admitted by the census officials, Professor Richey nevertheless maintains that "they must be regarded as the results of careful efforts to collect data objectively and probably as reliable as most evidence on which our social and economic history is based." After his examination of the data he notes that "it appears obvious that, in some states, summer and winter schools were reported and that some pupils were reported twice." Throughout his study he calls attention to high enrollment percentages which are explainable by "poor statistics" and "errors in the tabulations." Upon the basis of his analysis of the statistics Professor Richey concludes that the achievements of the common school revival of the first half of the nineteenth century "have probably been overestimated." Good results were discernible in some northern states, but regional differences were not as clear-cut as customarily claimed in the textbooks. In fact, there was practically a state of uniformity in educational conditions throughout the country, for, as Richey remarks, "Outside of a few eastern states and the town and cities of the remainder of the United States, schools were little more than symbols of pioneer longing or, perhaps, token settlements of legislative conscience." Here is a clear instance of how statistics may be drawn upon to correct widely accepted statements of dubious accuracy.

A later study by Professor Richey is also instructive as to procedures of analysis of nineteenth-century educational statistics ("The Persistence of Educational Progress during the Decade of the Civil War," *Elementary School Journal*, XLII, January, February, 1942, pp. 358-66, 456-63). Once more employing the figures of the United States Census, and again reminding the reader of their inaccuracies, he shows that, despite war conditions, "in the nation as a whole, progress in educational development was made during the period 1860-70." Although he does not mention this, Richey is instrumental in revising the impression offered by some historians of American education. Cubberley, to cite one example, states that it was a decade after the end of the Civil War "before any marked signs of educational expansion and development were evident in the North, and a third of a century before there was a real educational awakening in the South" (*Public Education in the United States*, p. 427).

It should be evident at this stage that statistics, properly evaluated, can dispel erroneous generalizations about educational conditions. To clinch the point, another instance might be considered. Many students of education—and this has been determined by informal checks in the author's classes—believe that the Negro teacher in the South receives a lower average salary than the white teacher does. This generalization is probably derived from the widely propagated impression as to the relatively low standards of education in that region. However, as one familiarizes himself with the educational history of the past decade, he begins to question the belief in the inequality of salaries between the races. He will find salaries equalized by court order in Virginia and by legislation in North Carolina. In the latter state, under a law passed in 1944, Negro and white teachers were to receive the same salary for identical qualifications. Statistics released in *State School Facts*, an official monthly publication of North Carolina's State Department of Public Instruction, reveal that in many communities the average salary paid to Negro teachers exceeds that of their white colleagues. Now the shoe is on the other foot, at least insofar as portions of North Carolina are concerned. How can this be explained? Inquiry brought out the

fact that Negro teachers had college degrees, including those of the graduate level, whereas many white teachers lacked them. Yet, before concluding that Negro teachers in some of the cities in North Carolina enjoy higher salaries than do the white teachers, one must consider the social scene. True, Negro and white teachers receive the same pay for equal qualifications, but it is more expensive for the Negro to obtain his college degrees. It must be remembered that the Negro does not have access to the more advanced educational facilities in the South. To obtain a higher degree he must make a pilgrimage to a northern institution of learning, and this involves higher tuition fees, rent, board, and travel expenses than his white colleagues have to spend. Thus, what appears at first glance to be conclusive statistical evidence that the Negro teacher in some North Carolina cities has a higher average salary than his white counterpart, turns out to be something quite different after an analysis of the real significance of the data in relation to the sociological milieu.

It is not superfluous to add that caution should be exercised in interpreting the statistical tables. Frequently the accompanying text specifies limitations of the data, all of which should be taken into account. A case in point is Table I in the July, 1948, issue of the above mentioned *State School Facts*, which, by the way, students may also find in the monthly *North Carolina Public School Bulletin*. According to this table, white elementary-school principals received an average annual salary of \$2034.32 during 1943-44, while the Negro principals were paid \$1904.82. The figures for 1944-45 were \$2067.17 (white) and \$2152.62 (Negro). For 1945-46, \$2432.28 (white) and \$2500.93 (Negro). It is possible that the North Carolina law of 1944, which determined salary on the basis of professional qualifications rather than race, is responsible for part of the differential in favor of the Negro elementary-school principal. However, one should not use the data for purposes of comparison without first reading the fine-point note above the table which states that "salaries are determined in the main by size of school." As there is no indication of school size in any of the tables, it is unsafe to draw any inferences.

Interpretation

The various types of problems likely to arise in historical research have been analyzed and illustrated with the aid of numerous examples. The student is now ready to consider the next major step in educational historiography, that of interpretation. Some attention has been given to interpretation earlier in the chapter, but, at this stage, the student is better able to appreciate its role in research.

It is hardly sufficient to accumulate data and to evaluate them. All that the research worker possesses is facts, which may be interesting and important by themselves; bones, in short, but no body. It is only when the historian shows the real meaning of his data, their interconnections and interrelationships, that he begins to approach the writing of history. Facts by themselves, even when arranged chronologically, do not constitute an historical narrative. By and large, historians subscribe to the dictum of "no interpretation, no history." An analysis of any good historical work will reveal that there is no mere mechanical listing of details, but that a serious attempt is made by the author to clothe these facts with significance by relating them to each other and to their milieu. In his excellent manual on the historical method, Garraghan asserts that "any attempt to order a mass of historical data into a coherent and intelligible narrative, with accompanying interpretation, calls for constant exercise of the reasoning powers, especially in certain forms of logical proof," among these being analogy, generalization, hypothesis, *argumentum ex silentio*, and argument *a priori*. These will now be analyzed as they have bearing upon the problems of educational history.

1. ANALOGY. Analogy is important not only because it establishes interesting and edifying resemblances, but also because it is a step in the direction of generalization. Many research workers are pleased indeed when they find themselves comparing events which have transpired ages ago with those of modern time. With proper evidence, analogies may yield causal relationships or fresh theories concerning the data. However, it is not uncommon for students to

assume analogies as proved relationships without further proof. Similarity between facts or events occurring at different times is no justification for assuming that one is necessarily derived from the other. Further, it is important to realize that resemblances between two events in one respect do not indicate that the events are similar to each other in other respects. Garraghan emphasizes that inference based on analogy depends on the quality of the resemblances rather than on the quantity, and that conclusions derived from analogy are false if they are "at variance with known facts, even a single one."

An obvious example will be used to illustrate analogy in educational history. Many historical writers have noted the resemblance between the educational systems of ancient Sparta and Nazi Germany. Both nations had many points in common with reference to education and other aspects of culture. In fact, the term "Spartanism" has been used in characterizing the prevailing spirit of Nazi Germany. Undoubtedly, it is helpful to compare both educational systems, but one must realize that there was no absolute identity and that the respective conditions affecting those systems were dissimilar. To extend the analogy beyond the points of actual resemblance is to misuse the principle.

2. GENERALIZATION. Another method of introducing meaning into facts is by generalizations. The grouping of details in a certain historical period lends some justification to an inference which will be valid for the period as a whole. Thus, after considering a number of instances of corporal punishment in schools in a town, the investigator might generalize to the extent that corporal punishment was practiced in that locality. One must be certain that the number of cases is representative and distributed over the area before he can assert that corporal punishment was widespread. Then again, attention should be given to the time factor, since a generalization which is valid one year may, because of administrative and other changes, be invalid the following year. Garraghan offers an example of how reasoning from specific data leads to a broad generalization. "Thus, from ten individual instances of classical manuscripts having been preserved from loss by a medieval monastery, we may conclude to

the general truth that the medieval monasteries preserved the classics. Here the force of the proof lies in the circumstance that the tenfold repetition of the same phenomena cannot be explained except on the assumption that it was a characteristic or effect more or less uniformly found in the institution in question." It should be noted, however, that the circumstance that one monastery preserved manuscripts does not prove beyond doubt that *all* monasteries did so. It is evident that some monasteries, perhaps even many, were very careful with their manuscripts, but that, since so many manuscripts have been lost or destroyed or otherwise tampered with, quite a few monasteries did not preserve their written treasures. Accordingly, it might be more accurate to qualify the generalization about the preservation of manuscripts by inserting "some," "many," or "most," according to the evidence, in front of "medieval monasteries."

As already seen, generalization is a product of inductive reasoning; that is, forming conclusions on the basis of accumulated data. Another step in this form of thinking is the establishment of historical laws of universal application. Such generalizations differ from the preceding in that they look toward the future, and may be said to have predictive value in proportion as they are accurate. At least this is what the formulators of historical laws would like everyone to believe. In educational history, unlike general history, little use has been made of these laws. Nevertheless, in drawing upon the resources of history, educators frequently express themselves, implicitly to be sure, in terms of historical laws. Thus, John K. Norton, in "Five Reasons Why Public Education Should Be Given Federal Aid" (*NEA Journal*, Vol. 36, February, 1947, p. 92), argues as follows: "The bugaboo of Federal Control of education is just that—a bugaboo. A century of experience with Federal aid for education has demonstrated the fiscal mechanism whereby Federal aid can go to the states without resulting in Federal control of education." In effect, Professor Norton is doing what many special pleaders do when they appeal to history in support of their argument. Such persons usually precede their remarks with some expression as "history teaches," "history shows," and the like. The inference is that if Federal aid has

historically avoided Federal control, this situation is bound to continue in the future. It is clear that Professor Norton is reasoning by extrapolation, possibly by wishful thinking. There is no way of ascertaining that the precedent will not be broken and that control will accompany Federal aid to education after the passage of a new law. There is no way of controlling, at the present time, the conditions and forces which may prevail following Congressional legislation on the extension of Federal aid to the state school systems. It may not be an exaggeration to describe this mode of generalization—of inferring relationships that are carried into the future—as deterministic or even divinatory.

It can be seen that generalizations are very helpful in historical research and afford a clearer understanding of history. But this means that they must be derived and applied with care. Sweeping generalizations—those based on inadequate or insufficient data—are worthless from the scientific point of view, since they can be made at will and by anyone, and are not subjected to critical analysis. There is a common fallacy, "*ab uno disce omnes*," which refers to the tendency of some writers to generalize on the basis of a single case. A good example of this form of thinking has already been cited earlier in this chapter in connection with Preserved Smith's quotation of the statement by Governor Berkeley of Virginia in 1670. Professor Smith, it will be recalled, assumed the "condition of popular ignorance" on the apparent grounds of Berkeley's self-confessed aversion toward free schools and printing. By way of contrast, the student should recollect the practice of Marcus W. Jernegan, cited previously, who studied the town records of New England and then formulated his generalization in terms of "certain towns" only, rather than in universal terms in New England, since his evidence was only applicable to some communities.

That vocabulary is important in stating generalizations will be evident from an analysis of Herman G. Richey's technique in his previously discussed article, "Reappraisal of the State School Systems of the Pre-Civil-War Period." Professor Richey examined in that article the statistical basis for the comparison between education in

the North and in the South. He noted that the statistics "must be interpreted in the light of the meaning which the term 'public school' conveyed during the period 1840-60." Evidently, a "public school" a century ago meant an educational institution "almost entirely supported by tuition or by other private means." The reason that the description "public" was applied to such schools was that they were not privately owned, but were, to some extent, under public control. Those public schools were apparently far from free to all; hence, they cannot be compared to the public school today. Any comparison for any period during the nineteenth century must be founded upon precise definitions of the terms as they were used then, not at present. To read contemporary meanings into the terminology of the past is to commit an anachronism.

This discussion can best be concluded, with a rather lengthy quotation from John W. Adamson's *A Guide to the History of Education* (pp. 46-47):

Circumstances rather than desire sometimes compel those whose historical knowledge is limited or shadowy to study educational history. In such cases, ignorance is not always a barrier to prejudice. It may therefore not be altogether inopportune to recite certain platitudes which are very familiar to more experienced students of the past. In the first place, it is not true that Wisdom and Virtue were born in our time; to a future generation we also shall become "historical." Human nature to-day is very much what it has been throughout historic time at least. Secondly, men, parties and nations are not all black, nor all white, nor even all grey. They are piebald; or, to vary the figure, they are "good" (and bad) "in parts." It follows that you cannot sum up a man or a people or an age in a formula. Formulas are useful in history only on condition that they are not in all circumstances insisted upon. This will distress the little philosophers who carry a pocket full of labels ending in *-ist* and *-ic*; but it cannot be helped. Generalizations such as the "Dark Ages," "Mediaevalism," "The Reformation," "The Industrial Revolution," must not be taken for more than they are worth.

3. HYPOTHESIS. The study of the role of the hypothesis in historical research would seem to be best undertaken with the help of the

recognized principles of logic. Consequently, much reliance will be placed on the description of the hypothesis given in books on logic, particularly in Morris R. Cohen and Ernest Nagel's *An Introduction to Logic and Scientific Method* (New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1934). According to Cohen and Nagel, the viewpoint that the truth can be determined by the study of the facts is "utterly superficial," since "no inquiry can ever get under way until and unless *some difficulty is felt* in a practical or theoretical situation." The difficulty, or problem, leads to a search for interrelationship among the facts, and that, in turn, provides the substance for approaches toward a solution. As one progresses in collating his facts and in discerning relationships among them, he begins to advance a tentative explanation to account for these interconnections. This tentative explanation is what is customarily meant by the term hypothesis. With the aid of the hypothesis, the investigator can seek a more definite order among the facts and may eventually arrive at a reasonable solution. To be satisfactory, assert Cohen and Nagel, a hypothesis must be capable of verification on the bases of sense observation, experimentation, and success in prediction.

As in other aspects of the historical method, the student must be watchful so as not to indulge in incorrect hypotheses. Unfortunately, some writers make their facts conform to the hypothesis, rather than vice versa, or else they overwork their evidence to reach almost fantastic conclusions. "The only corrective of this false attitude," remarks Garraghan, "is rigorous self-discipline and intellectual honesty. Such moral safeguards will save the investigator from undue attachment to his hypothesis, make him disinterested and objective in applying it to the facts, and ready to abandon it promptly if the facts tell definitely against it." Should a hypothesis become weakened or even disproved, it still possesses value in that it may lead to better research work and more tenable hypotheses.

Garraghan offers some helpful hints on the use of historical hypotheses: first, a hypothesis should only be formulated after a thorough study and analysis of the available data; second, a hypothesis should not be framed "without at least some supporting grounds

of probability" which "must be exactly weighed while opposing grounds are to be given due consideration"; third, "a hypothesis that runs counter even to a single established fact must be abandoned"; fourth, separate hypotheses should not be applied simultaneously to the same problem; fifth, a hypothesis must never be presented as an established fact; sixth, "the more complex and many-sided the body of facts dealt with, the more need there is of caution in handling the hypothesis"; and finally a hypothesis should be expressed "in terms of a single central and unifying concept to which all the items in the group of facts under examination can be referred."

Careful checking of the initial pages of historical research studies will disclose how hypotheses originate and how they are to be tested. James J. Walsh's *Education of the Founding Fathers of the Republic* (New York: Fordham University Press, 1935) is a case in point. Taking issue with the widespread notion that the Scholastic philosophy of the medieval universities lost its hold on higher education at the time of the Reformation, Dr. Walsh proposes that Scholasticism persisted not only in the European universities but also in "American universities and colleges down until well on in the nineteenth century." There is no explicit statement as to how Dr. Walsh arrived at this hypothesis, but it may be assumed that he had some prior evidence which suggested this theory. To test his hypothesis, he examined official documents in the archives of the colonial American colleges. He found what he described as "undoubtedly the most important group of documents for the history of education during the colonial period in this country" and during "a full generation after the Declaration of Independence." These documents, which have been "strangely neglected or misunderstood," are broadside sheets containing Latin propositions or theses which were distributed to the audiences attending college commencements. Dr. Walsh demonstrates that, in both form and content, these theses were indications of the Scholastic philosophy and methods of instruction which were carried over by American colleges from the Middle Ages. His generalization, accordingly, was that "it was by medieval

methods and largely through the study of medieval subjects that the men were educated who signed the Declaration of Independence—for the majority of the signers were college men—but also formed the minds of the men who gave us the Constitution of the United States and of the various States of the Union.” An examination of Dr. Walsh’s book shows considerable evidence in the form of commencement theses to support his theory that Scholasticism continued to influence American higher education as late as the nineteenth century. However, there does not seem any justification for implying that the founders of the new American republic made use of their particular Scholastic training in their political activities. Certainly, such men as Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Rush, and their colleagues, were quite distant in their beliefs and thinking patterns from Scholasticism. There is no indisputable evidence, in short, that the Founding Fathers applied Scholasticism to the problems of the new government. One must therefore regard Dr. Walsh’s assumption as a hypothesis which still requires verification, but his main argument about Scholasticism in the curriculum of the colonial American college would seem to be substantiated.

The use of the hypothesis may also be studied in Sister Marie Léonore Fell’s *The Foundations of Nativism in American Textbooks, 1783-1860* (Ph.D. dissertation Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C., The Catholic University of America Press, 1941). The author based her work on the fact that there were numerous instances of anti-Catholic feeling and action in eighteenth- and nineteenth-century America. These have been analyzed in several research studies and dissertations. It stands to reason that anti-Catholicism would also be manifested in literature, possibly also in schoolbooks. Consequently, she examined over a thousand readers, histories, geographies, and other textbooks used in schools. The author’s conclusion was that the books revealed “an anti-Catholic attitude on the part of the compilers.” Even if the student of historiography should reject some of the examples of anti-Catholicism as an excessively broad interpretation of that term, there still remain a goodly number to lend strength to Sister Marie Léonore’s hypothesis.

An instance will now be given to illustrate the rebuttal of a hypothesis. In "The S.P.G. Myth: A Note on Education in Colonial New York" (*Journal of Educational Research*, XIII, February, 1926, pp. 129-37), Robert F. Seybolt undertakes an investigation to test the authenticity of the hypothesis (or generalization) that all English schools in New York, from 1700 to 1776, were operated by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. This view was apparently first expressed in Andrew S. Draper's *Origin and Development of the New York Common School System* (1890) and was later accepted by Edwin G. Dexter, Ellwood P. Cubberley, and other historians of American education. The basis for this hypothesis lies in the fact that there were schools in New York during this period which were supported by the S.P.G.F.P. Yet, Professor Seybolt, an outstanding research historian in education, found grounds for "a notion that there were many 'English schools' in the Province of New York from 1700 to 1776" which were not maintained by the religious society. This hypothesis was derived from a statement in "the only source-account" of the S.P.G.F.P. in New York, W. W. Kemp's *The Support of Schools in Colonial New York by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts* (1913), to the effect that the society supported from five to ten schools continuously during 1710-76 in New York. His problem, therefore, was to find out how many and what kinds of other schools there were in New York during this period. An examination of the *New York Gazette* and other eighteenth-century newspapers, town records, and miscellaneous primary sources resulted in a list of two hundred "English schools" not maintained by the S.P.G.F.P. Without claiming that his research was exhaustive, he collected the names of 250 schools, including Dutch and French, for the period 1700-76. Parenthetically, it should be stated that Professor Seybolt assumed that an "English school" was one in which English was the language of instruction of the fundamental subjects. In view of the discovery of so many schools not subsidized by the S.P.G.F.P., Professor Seybolt concludes that the statement by Draper and others is "but one of the many errors that have been perpetuated in the

accounts of early American education. The danger lies in the probability that the student will be no more critical than his text." Here is an example of how a research worker disproves one hypothesis, sets up his own on a foundation of reliable evidences, and then proceeds by the accumulation of authentic and representative data to verify his own hypothesis.

4. ARGUMENTUM EX SILENTIO. The argument from silence is another useful device in historical interpretation. This argument is utilized in questioning the authenticity of a fact, event, or testimony because the contemporary sources make no mention of it. Garraghan suggests two cautions in dealing with *argumentum ex silentio*: first, communication in earlier ages was so poor that important events could remain unknown for a long time even to persons occupying high stations in a country; and second, events considered significant in the light of modern history may have seemed otherwise to writers in earlier times. To exemplify these points, he cites Isaac Taylor's *The Transmission of Ancient Books to Modern Times* to the effect that inscriptions, coins, statues, and buildings frequently testify to important facts that have been overlooked by ancient writers. He also mentions several cases wherein the argument from silence was instrumental in solving historical problems. One of these, concerning a person who contributed to the advancement of education in his time, may be restated. The medieval *Chronicle of Turpin (Historia de vita Caroli Magni et Rolandi)*, which narrates the life of Charlemagne, ascribes exploits to the emperor and points to his courtiers and other leading officials as witnesses. However, Einhard, the biographer of Charlemagne and the chief contemporary authority on his life, does not mention these incidents at all. Consequently, since Einhard would have been in a position to know the exploits and narrate them, it may be taken for granted that Turpin's account is not credible.

Another example of the argument, this time illustrating how it should not be used, is found in the literature on educational history. Samuel R. Hall's *Lectures on School-Keeping*, published in 1829, became a "best seller" in the field of teacher training in the United States for some time thereafter. Some writers regard this volume as

the first textbook for teachers in America, but this view has been critically evaluated elsewhere in this chapter. Nowhere does Hall refer to the existence of any other treatise on teaching methods. In view of the fact that Hall has been named by many historians as the founder of the first normal school in America and as an influential person in the development of teacher training, one might wish to argue that there were no previous works on the subject of teaching methodology. However, there is evidence of at least three earlier treatments of the subject: Christopher Dock's *Schulordnung* (1770), and Joseph Neef's *Sketch of a Plan and Method of Education* (1808), and *Method of Instructing Children Rationally in the Arts of Reading and Writing* (1813). Hall may perhaps have been unaware of Dock's book because it was written in German, but it is less likely that he had not heard of Neef's works. In that case he may not have regarded them sufficiently valuable for mention to future teachers, or he may have disagreed with Neef's viewpoint and did not think it worthwhile to take issue with the former Swiss pedagogue. Be that as it may, the fact remains that it is unsafe to argue the non-existence of previous works on teacher training merely on the basis of Hall's silence. This example should also convey the suggestion that the *argumentum ex silentio* must be applied with the greatest of care.

Still another case of the *argumentum ex silentio* is found in Thomas Woody's *Life and Education in Early Societies* (New York: Macmillan, 1949, pp. 315-16). Professor Woody, relying on Wilamowitz-Moellendorff and other authorities, asserts that the lack of mention of the Ephebic College in the works of Plato, Xenophon, Isocrates, and other Greek writers on education indicates that it probably did not exist in their day. Silence on the subject of the Ephebic College is "all but universal, and men who might be expected to praise such an institution, or recommend it as a model, or at least as a partial fulfillment of their ideal, do not in any way indicate knowledge of its existence." In fact, Professor Woody adduces quotations from Xenophon, Thucydides, and Isocrates to the effect that military training at that time in Athens was neither public nor systematic.

5. ARGUMENT A PRIORI. The argument *a priori* has been used, as Garraghan shows, in cases where direct evidence of an event is lacking while, at the same time, there are grounds to indicate its antecedent probability or improbability. To mention an example, since Louis IX was very loyal to the Pope, it is unlikely that he sponsored the Pragmatic Sanction of Bourges, an anti-papal document attributed to him. Similarly, the reader of the doggerel known to have been composed by Francis Bacon will be loath to accept the theory of his authorship of the plays attributed to Shakespeare. The pitfalls of this type of historical reasoning should be evident even to the elementary student. The only time it can be used, emphasizes Garraghan, is when the "actual degree of antecedent probability" is considerable, and then "the inference rises to a proportionate level of assurance."

6. BIAS. In the application of the principle of *a priori* argumentation to problems in educational history, the most striking illustration of its misuse seems to be the incidence of bias. Whenever a writer of history interprets his data in the light of preconceptions, he is indulging in the questionable, even objectionable, use of *a priori* thinking. A baseless assumption followed by the fitting of the facts into its confines does not represent impartial historiography, but rather the device known as loading the dice. This does not imply that the historian can be completely objective; psychology has demonstrated that everyone, including persons trained in the rigorous practice of the scientific method, is prone toward prejudice of various kinds in his work. Nor it is required, as Garraghan shows, that the historian have no sympathy or distaste for his person, institution, or idea which he is investigating; or that he withhold his own philosophy of life or judgments concerning the subjects of his research. Rather, the historian, recognizing his human frailty, should endeavor to minimize his personal prejudice and to interpret his data as carefully and dispassionately as possible. To assume that, since total objectivity is impossible, there is no reason even to try to be objective is to reduce historical writing to the level of mere opinion.

Earlier historical writings in the field of education are replete with

instances of biased interpretation. F. V. N. Painter in *A History of Education* (revised edition, New York, Appleton, 1904) describes the Chinese as "hypocritical and dishonest; and, once in authority, they are apt to become tyrannical, and even cruel" (p. 12). With reference to the Jesuit system of education, Painter concludes without definite proof that, "while our baser feelings were highly stimulated, the nobler side of our nature was wholly neglected" (p. 193). The Chinese are also complimented in Graves' *A History of Education before the Middle Ages* with the words: "The Chinese are sober, industrious, and thrifty; but, beneath the surface of their fine ethical precepts, they are often vain, cunning, servile, and immoral" (p. 74). It would be interesting to learn by what logical processes Painter and Graves have been able to arrive at their respective judgments, but neither writer discloses them.

In more recent years, with the development of interest in inter-cultural and international relations, educational writers have tended to refrain from such unbridled and unscientific language. Nonetheless, one can find evidence of subtle bias, innuendos, and miscellaneous forms of card-stacking. Thus, in *Modern Philosophies of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1939, p. 343), John S. Brubacher refers to a point of view toward which he is unsympathetic: "Of course not all essentialists are fascists, but there is an undeniable essentialism about fascism." There is no shred of unassailable proof in the book to support this curious statement.

Bias, as may well be understood, is not only *against*, but may also be *for* someone or something. Thus, Franz De Hovre, a Belgian priest who has written meritorious historical and philosophical works in education, praises highly in his *Philosophy and Education* (New York: Benziger Bros., 1931) the ideas of Julius Langbehn, who styled himself anonymously *der Rembrandtdeutsche* (The German Rembrandt). Dr. De Hovre describes Langbehn, a convert to Catholicism, as "a courageous thinker" who "ranks high as a Catholic educator" (p. 333) and as a "staunch" opponent of nationalism. Langbehn has been described in George F. Kneller's monograph, *The Educational Philosophy of National Socialism* (New Haven,

Yale University Press, 1941, p. 102), as one who "advanced principles that in one way or another exalted the sanctity and superiority of the German race" and as a forerunner of National Socialism. Several pages later (p. 119), Professor Kneller characterizes Langbehn's chief work, *Rembrandt als Erzieher*, as giving "special attention to the demands of national aspirations upon the field of education." He quotes Langbehn as saying that Germany will dominate of all her citizens can be taught that "Volk concentrated upon itself will prevail over all others." Dr. De Hovre's well-spaced quotations are evidence of his acquaintanceship with Langbehn's work; consequently, it is difficult to comprehend why he overlooked the German writer's nationalism. Possibly he does not interpret as nationalistic those passages which reflect that spirit to Kneller. In any event, it may be surmised that Father De Hovre's benevolent attitude toward Langbehn may stem from the fact that the latter embraced Catholicism several years before his death.

Students of history are familiar with another kind of biased interpreter, the *laudator temporis acti*, one who can find nothing but praise for the past. In Gilbert and Sullivan's "The Mikado," Ko-Ko, the Lord High Executioner, reveals that his "little list" of individuals "whose deaths will be a distinct gain to society at large" and "who never would be missed" includes

. . . the idiot who praises, with enthusiastic tone,
All centuries but this, and every country but his own . . .

In latter decades it has become more common to find what may be called the *detractor temporis acti*. This bias against the past was especially evident in the writings of European educational reformers at the turn of the century and the tendency has persisted ever since. It seems that almost everyone who writes about modern education feels the moral obligation of setting up a straw man labeled the traditional school and then felling him with knockout blows. Rarely do these critics give a representative description of the old school; it apparently suits their purposes better to select its worse characteristics and to compare them with the best of the current period. It should also be noted, however, that the reverse

procedure is similarly true. Opponents of Progressive education frequently glorify the old school and berate the new. The fact of the matter is that careful, unprejudiced research will probably reveal both good and bad forms of education, whether of the traditional or of the Progressive type.

An illustration of the one-sided attitude toward the past is given in a story about John Dewey in Harold Rugg and Ann Shumaker's *The Child-Centered School* (Yonkers: World Book Co., 1928, p. 1). Dr. Dewey is described as making, in 1896, the rounds of the school supply stores in Chicago, preparatory to opening his celebrated laboratory school. He requested the type of furniture which he deemed necessary to serve the artistic, hygienic, and educational needs of small children. After considerable difficulty in conveying his desires to the various salesmen, he finally met one who remarked: "I am afraid we have not what you want. You want something at which the children may *work*; these are all for *listening*." Whereupon Dr. Dewey is said to have commented, "And that tells the story of the traditional education."

In a recent article, Philip Peak offers two further instances of how a preconceived negative attitude toward the past distorts the picture of an earlier educational situation ("Research before Writing," *School and Society*, vol. 68, August 7, 1948, pp. 91-3). Dr. Peak quotes several critical comments on traditional education made by Professor Charles H. Judd in an historical survey. According to Judd, education was evidently adapting itself to popular needs, since there were 250 "courses" in the high schools of 1930, whereas only nine "subjects" were reported as given in 1890. After establishing the fact that Judd regards "course" as equivalent to "subject," Peak cites the secondary-school curriculum described in the 1890 report of the United States Bureau of Education. Apart from the nine subjects referred to by Professor Judd, the report contains 15 additional subjects of the manual-training variety. Now the 1930 report of the United States Office of Education indicates that 243 courses were reported by high schools all over the country. Since these undoubtedly represented duplication, the Office summarized them into forty

courses under eight subjects, ostensibly implying that the two expressions were distinct. Thus, in the 1930 report, the subject of history is divided into the courses of American history, foreign history, and other history. In the 1890 report, on the other hand, all courses in history were subsumed under the subject of history. Accordingly, states Peak, "Dr. Judd failed to note the importance of the use of 'course' and 'subject' and also the difference in the reporting of data between the two dates." He then concludes this example by objecting to Judd's inference that the number of courses given by a school is directly proportional to its quality. This is irrelevant, he feels; but, even supposing that Judd overlooked the implications of his statement, there still remained an inexcusable attempt "to compare two noncomparable items." Such writing, according to Peak, "can leave a distorted impression not only to the lay reader but to many future outstanding men in education."

The other illustration concerns a statement in the Harvard Report, *General Education in a Free Society*, to the effect that the nineteenth-century high school's function was that of college preparation. Taking the position that "the function of the school can probably best be determined by a close study of its course offerings," Peak refers to Alexander J. Inglis' *The Rise of the High School in Massachusetts* as "a rather exhaustive study" of the nineteenth-century secondary curriculum. In that volume there is evidence of high schools, as early as 1821, offering 25 different courses, and of 63 schools listing 72 different courses by 1861. It is obvious that the nineteenth-century high school in Massachusetts boasted a broader curriculum than it was credited with by the Harvard Report. Peak's basic assumption is that the courses which were required or offered were actually taught. This, of course, must be proved, but even at that the very fact that the high schools "offered" sewing, cooking, bookkeeping, and other noncollegiate courses would lend credence to the inference that they had other functions than the one of college preparation. In his closing remarks, Dr. Peak asserts that historical writers who give "false impression and blind-alley directions are committing a crime against humanity."

An example will now be given to illustrate bias in the writing of an individual opposed to current tendencies in American higher education. In his explosive *Universities: American, English, German* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1930), Abraham Flexner takes special pains to criticize the theses accepted for masters' and doctors' degrees at Teachers College of Columbia University and at the University of Chicago. For the most part, he confines himself to the mention of the titles—which, it must be admitted, do sound somewhat ridiculous—without attempting to analyze the content of a sampling of these theses (pp. 102-3, 152-4, 156-7). Undoubtedly, there is a great deal of truth to what Flexner says about the standard of American higher education, as any careful and fair-minded observer will readily confess. However, when he discusses the theses produced at German universities, Mr. Flexner refrains from applying the same critical criteria. Apparently, he is still under the impression that German universities are superior institutions where trivial subjects are never accepted as doctoral dissertations and where the dissertations are models of scientific writing. According to Flexner, "The [German] theses presented and accepted do not deal with the trivial or insane; they may be of little or no value, but they never deal with our girls and what they tell us" (pp. 348-49). A few more sentences on the general subject of thesis requirements, and that is all. There is not a single example of a German thesis title, although there is a liberal number of American thesis titles. Certainly, there are some good subjects which have been accepted as dissertations in American universities, but Mr. Flexner does not mention a single one, thus leaving the reader with the impression that most, if not all, American theses are inane. Anyone who has ever had anything to do with German doctoral dissertations should have no trouble in compiling a list of titles which might rival the American specimens selected by Mr. Flexner. Furthermore, many German dissertations reveal immature thinking, a superficial grasp of the problem, amateurish methods of research, and other inadequacies. Parenthetically, it might be remarked that Mr. Flexner might have used a footnote to compare the United States theses with those of Latin American

countries, a most instructive comparison. By approaching his critique in the manner that he did, Flexner shows that he is not impartial in his analysis of American higher education. For additional support of the position taken here, namely, that German dissertations are not what they have been supposed to be, the reader should consult Fred B. Millett's *The Rebirth of Liberal Education* (New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1945, p. 19, footnote). According to Professor Millett, "the decline in the quality of the German Ph.D. thesis is notorious. The time has long since passed when a German Ph.D. degree, whether held by a national or foreigner, had had any intellectual standing or rating." He discusses the "trifling and insignificant German Ph.D. theses" and concludes with the admonition, "In the decline and fall of the German Ph.D. thesis, there is a warning for all of us."

An unclassifiable form of a priori thinking appears in a well-known work by Robert Ulich. In contrasting Luther with Erasmus, Professor Ulich calls attention to the portraits of these educators by Dürer, Holbein, and other renowned artists. He describes concretely the physical appearance of Luther and then offers the following interpretation: "Everything contrives to indicate the robust, choleric, and rustic character of a man who rebelled against the unnaturalness of celibacy; who liked a good table with jovial friends, but who also had hours of deepest melancholy; who was utterly intemperate in the use of invective against his enemies; and who did not succumb in a life of continual fighting and excitement." After continuing in a similar vein for several more sentences, Dr. Ulich translates in words the characterizations of Erasmus by Dürer and Matsys. Apart from the dubious anthropological designation of "a regular Nordic nose," there are physical descriptions and interpretations of other parts of the Erasmian physiognomy. The Dürer portrait, asserts Ulich, shows a man who "has certainly the qualities of an expert philologist and editor, of a sagacious thinker, and of a dangerous satirist." Even more, "however many traits we may discover in Dürer's Erasmus, one thing is not to be found—the enormous tension between brute animality and prophetic transcendentalism which we see in Luther." The very next sentence proceeds

to apply the differences between the two men as observed in their portraits to actual history: "Therefore these two men could go together as long as they fought the corruption and backwardness of the Catholic hierarchy; but since Luther fought with the passion of a prophet and Erasmus as a wise rationalist, they were bound to separate later." It would be interesting to know the scientific criteria by which Professor Ulich is able to deduce traits of character, which, strangely enough, coincide with these educators' precise roles in history. Could he draw similar conclusions from the great artists' portraits of other persons who did not distinguish themselves in the annals of mankind? Obviously, Professor Ulich, who is intimately acquainted with the life and deeds of both Luther and Erasmus, seems to draw upon this information for his interpretation of their characters. This is a clear example of reasoning from knowledge already possessed (*a priori*). It is questionable, moreover, whether Ulich's two-page discussion of the Lutheran and Erasmian physiognomy deserves any space in a book written by a recognized research scholar in educational history (Robert Ulich, *History of Educational Thought*, New York, American Book Co., 1945, pp. 130-32).

Synthesis

The last step in the historiographical process, save that of exposition or the actual written presentation, is the synthesis of one's research. Let it be assumed that the historian has gathered and evaluated his source materials, and established his facts. He is now at the stage when he must tie together all the loose strings of his investigation.

1. SELECTION OF DATA. First of all, he must decide which of his data he intends to use in his presentation of results. The chances are that he will have a wealth of material, all of which seems important, especially since it has undoubtedly been collected and sifted with "blood, sweat, and tears." However, the research worker must consider the size and cost of his final document, the time at his disposal, the relevance of the data to his main point, the style of exposition, and the psychological effect on his readers. It is not

difficult to imagine the reaction of even a scholarly person to a book or dissertation of gargantuan size. A good part of one's extra material might be safely inserted into an appendix, used for other studies in this field, or simply put into the back of the mind as the permanent possession of the historian. It goes without saying that reference and other very specialized works are exceptions in this regard.

The fundamental criteria for selection of material is the historian's purpose. In view of the fact that the large majority of the users of this book will be candidates for the various collegiate degrees, it will be taken for granted that their studies will be intended for a narrower or broader circle of scholars and scholars-to-be. The student should keep in mind, as mentioned in the previous paragraph, that the patience and span of attention of specialists may not be unlimited. There is, hence, no basis for the assumption that the writer of an historical report must throw "all his stuff" into his manuscript. A scholarly study should include the steps in the author's thinking and examples of the treatment of his data. Contrasting and conflicting viewpoints should be represented in the report. Also to be included is a reasonable representation of the background of the subject treated in the student's research. It is not superfluous to add that personal bias should be minimized as much as possible in the selection of material.

Writers of research reports which are submitted to instructors of courses in educational history are not usually expected to apply elaborate schemes of selection of data. Yet, even they should exercise care in choosing material which is relevant to their main topic. The time and space factors, referred to in an earlier paragraph, should also be considered. In general, the inclusion of primary data is preferable to those of the secondary variety.

2. CHRONOLOGICAL SEQUENCE. There are several ways of synthesizing one's material and presenting a well-organized, unified, intelligible, reliable, consistent picture of a mass of factual data. In some cases, it is useful to organize a report on the basis of chronological sequence. This was done in *Tercentenary History of the*

Roxbury Latin School: 1645-1945 (Cambridge, Mass.: Riverside Press, 1946), by Richard W. Hale, Jr. The advantage of this mode of organization is that the reader can get an idea of the development of an institution. On the other hand, the historian may miss good opportunities of treating certain topics in a detailed fashion, since his chief interest is to continue his chronological narrative without interruption. Another approach toward synthesis is by dividing the material according to geographical or other units. This was done in Pearl Kibre's *The Nations in the Mediaeval Universities* (Cambridge, Mass.: Mediaeval Academy of America, 1948), where the author, on the basis of the amount of data available, treated her material by country, region, and institution. R. H. Eckelberry in *The History of the Municipal University in the United States* (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1932, No. 9, Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1932), presents and discusses his material with reference to individual institutions. Under such circumstances, the author does not give a flowing history which follows the temporal sequence of events.

3. **TOPICAL ARRANGEMENT.** Still another form of synthesis is by way of topical arrangement. This is usually advisable in studies having a broad scope. Thus, a history of education in a large city, or a state, might divide its narrative under such headings as elementary, secondary and higher education, teacher training, finance, and so forth. But this procedure involves frequent repetition or numerous cross-references at the very least. With the thread of the story obscured, the writer must insert an overall chronological chapter. Perhaps the most refined, most difficult technique is one which combines various approaches, the topical and the chronological for example. In *Education in New Jersey: 1630-1871* (Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1942), Nelson R. Burr uses both types by devoting special chapters to such specific topics as denominational school systems, academies, elementary schools, while at the same time trying to carry the chronological development forward, with varying degrees of success.

4. **CAUSALITY.** The synthesis just discussed is of the mechanical or

external type; there is also what Garraghan calls "internal synthesis." According to this historiographer, "no single fact in history is completely isolated from other facts. Any single event owes its existence to other events which preceded it, and in turn, is followed by other events which owe their existence to it." In brief, it is necessary for the historian to point out the relationships among his factual data. The fundamental form of internal synthesis is causality, or cause and effect relations. Garraghan issues a reminder that "any serious conception of history postulates an inquiry into causes. Merely to set down events one after another, with no attempt to show them as held together by the binding power of causation, is not even to cross the threshold of history." The reader has already been made familiar with causality in the discussion of the treatment of source materials earlier in the chapter. The determination of the origins of an educational idea or book, the establishment of an educator's influence on others, and the use of the hypothesis involve basically the principle of causality. Since enough has already been written in this chapter about these processes, there remains the reenforcement of a few remarks and cautions previously mentioned. It is less probable for an event to have a single cause rather than a combination of causes. A sequence of two or more events does not necessarily imply causation (*post hoc, non ergo propter hoc*). A distinction might be made between immediate and underlying causes. The latter, of course, are very difficult to prove.

5. HISTORICAL TRENDS. The determination of historical trends is related to the technique of synthesis. Here the writer compares facts over a period of time to show a particular tendency or direction. A trend is a special sort of relationship among facts in that similarity in a particular respect becomes the basis for a broad generalization which is likely to be used for purposes of prediction. It is therefore necessary to be especially careful in the methods of discerning trends. Claude C. Crawford's *The Technique of Research in Education* (Los Angeles, University of Southern California, 1928, pp. 58-60) presents the best discussion of this subject. Professor Crawford correctly criticizes the practice of many writers who collect state-

ments from books and articles concerning certain trends and then present these opinions as the trends themselves. He also points out the danger of considering current conditions or practices as trends without studying the corresponding conditions of the past. On the positive side, he recommends a number of principles and techniques toward the improvement of research on trends: (1) A trend can only be measured by a comparison between conditions or practices at different times; (2) it is preferable to study trends at long (*e.g.*, fifty-year) intervals than at short (five year) intervals; (3) it is better to contrast separated time-periods than adjacent ones; (4) the conditions or practices of two periods should be classified on an identical basis; (5) the reduction of data to statistical form tends to decrease the subjective errors commonly found in verbal descriptions; (6) increase or decrease of curricular material may be determined by an examination of textbooks over a period of time; (7) the study of professional educational magazines will show new emphasis from one period to the next; (8) publication dates of textbooks can be used to compare the rate of increase or decrease of the number of books with respect to the various school subjects; (9) the number of periodical articles on a certain topic for two time-periods will indicate its use or fall in popularity as a subject of discussion; (10) a trend may be determined by an increase in the number of entries in *Education Index* and other periodical indexes; (11) old examination question and questionnaire studies may be administered and the results compared with those available for a previous period; (12) the research worker should be very careful to choose materials which really represent their respective periods; (13) and finally, "the existence of a trend should not be taken as a justification of it."

The present author would also add the suggestion that trends be determined on the basis of several time-intervals, say five-year or ten-year periods for studies of brief temporal sweep, and correspondingly longer ones for researches covering a great duration of time. It may even be advisable to include adjacent periods, provided there are enough of them so as to take account of the possibility of reversed trends. Thus, a comparative study of the place of the topic

of insurance in arithmetic textbooks over a period of half a century cannot, as Crawford suggests, merely contrast the textbooks of 1900 with those of 1949, with any difference of emphasis on insurance to be regarded as a trend. It is more than likely that there may have been several changes in attitude toward the teaching of insurance in arithmetic courses. For example, during 1900-10 insurance may have been popular; during 1910-20, more popular; during 1920-30, unpopular; during 1930-40, rising somewhat in popularity; during 1940-49, moderately popular. A student who merely contrasts 1900-10 with 1940-49, will conclude that the teaching of insurance in arithmetic courses has decreased somewhat over a fifty-year period. On the other hand, one who has studied this problem by ten-year intervals will arrive at a different conclusion, namely, that the trend in the teaching of insurance in arithmetic classes has experienced ups and downs, with the present tendency once more in an upward direction. It should be clear which of these conclusions is accurate.

6. **THE SUMMARY.** Many dissertations and other studies in educational history include a final synthesizing chapter which frequently contains a summary, conclusions, evaluation or critique, implications, and recommendations. These are very helpful to the writer and to the reader. A good summary is not a mechanical recapitulation of numerous facts; it is, rather, a selection of the most significant data together with appropriate interpretation and a clear delineation of interrelationships. The conclusions represent generalizations about the generalizations contained in the study. The processes of arriving at generalizations have been discussed earlier in this chapter.

Evaluations or critiques, by their very nature, require special attention. The student should be particularly circumspect in establishing a definite criterion or criteria of evaluation. An example of such a criterion may be found in Sister M. Pelagia Hagenhoff's *The Educational Philosophy of Friedrich Wilhelm Foerster* (Ph.D. dissertation, Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C. Catholic University of America Press, 1946, pp. 217-27). The author evaluates Foerster's views on education from the standpoint of Catholic educational philosophy. Regardless whether one agrees or disagrees with

the author's basic premises, there is no doubt that she appraises Foerster's ideas effectively in terms of her own orientation.

It is important, then, to specify the standards used in evaluation. For greater acceptance of the evaluation, of course, the writer must adopt criteria which are recognized as valid. It will not do simply to evaluate educators of the past by present-day practices. Although it is admittedly difficult to place a man, idea, practice, or event in a contemporary context, it will be necessary to apply the conditions and criteria of earlier ages in appraising the educational work and ideas of long ago. For a good example of how this can be accomplished, the reader should consult Chapter XVI of Pius J. Barth's *Franciscan Education and the Social Order in Spanish North America (1502-1821)* (Ph.D. dissertation, Chicago, University of Chicago, 1945, pp. 341-71). Dr. Barth sets out to evaluate the educational contributions of the Franciscans "on the basis of modification effected in the behaviour patterns of those who came in contact with Franciscan educational institutions." Among the circumstances which he mentions in connection with this evaluation is a reference to the great alumni of the Franciscan College of Tlaltelolco for Indians, many of whom, according to the official testimony of Juan de Ovando in 1569, were comparable as Latinists to the alumni of the universities of Salamanca and Alcalá. Furthermore, in 1537 and again in 1550, Viceroy Antonio de Mendoza visited Holy Cross College and reported to Emperor Charles V that his examination of the students disclosed that they were very advanced in Latin and in their other studies. Other contemporary visitors are cited by Barth in support of Mendoza's observations. On one occasion, the native students were "impudent" enough to correct the Latin grammar used by a priest. To clinch this particular point, the author cites the celebrated sixteenth-century historian of Mexico, Fray Bernardino de Sahagún, O. F. M., to the effect that, for a period of forty years, the students and graduates of Holy Cross College helped the Franciscans to convert the natives by interpreting theology in understandable terms, thus achieving the purpose for which they had been trained by the Franciscans. The reader should note that Barth has made use of

contemporary evidence to evaluate the accomplishments of the Franciscans as educators. Lest one get the impression that the Franciscans had one uninterrupted sequence of success, the author cites instances of poor instruction of Indians. Also, as if in rebuttal to implied criticism of his partiality, he regards critically all statistical figures of Franciscan success in mass conversion during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. All in all, Barth concludes that the Franciscans' educational efforts were successful because they brought about changes in the behavior and pattern of life of the North American Indians. The evaluation of these accomplishments, as already noted, was based upon criteria set up by contemporaneous observers.

Implication and recommendations are derivable from conclusions. Based on the principle of analogy, discussed earlier in this chapter, the implications constitute plans for future action. A case in point are the implications of Rhodes R. Stabley's *Newspaper Editorials on American Education* (Ph.D. dissertation, Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania, 1941, pp. 279-82). After a thoroughgoing study of selected newspapers, Dr. Stabley arrives at the conclusion that educational attitudes expressed in editorials apparently reflect the "times," sectional and political interests, and changes in control. Accordingly, he suggests that readers should avoid becoming unduly impressed by a single newspaper's position, especially on educational matters of more than local interest. Rather, the reader should compare the position taken by newspapers published in different parts of the country and reflecting different political views, thereby enabling himself to detect the relative amount of bias in any single newspaper. Other pertinent implications concern the cooperation between editors and educators to minimize the harmful effects of special interests, to reduce the misinterpretation and misunderstanding of educational developments, and to enhance mutual appreciation and respect. An examination of Dr. Stabley's dissertation will show the relevance and reasonableness of his implications and recommendations.

7. THE CHAPTER OF HISTORICAL BACKGROUND. It is customary in many non-historical studies in education for the author to start out

with the historical background of his topic or with a summary of the previous literature on his subject. Some writers fail to take this task seriously enough, preferring to treat the preparation of an historical chapter as an unwanted chore to be disposed of with a minimum of inconvenience. As a result, they fill up pages with material taken from questionable sources. If history, regardless of the amount, is to be written at all, it should be done in accordance with the accepted methods. This is not to say that the writer of a non-historical essay should make use of all the techniques outlined in this book for his single historical chapter; he should appreciate, however, the historical method of research and utilize it in essence on a small scale. An example will make this point clear.

Let it be supposed that a student is preparing a research report on the status of physical education in the current secondary-school curriculum in the United States. To place his subject in its proper historical background, the student may wish to offer a résumé of the major developments in secondary physical education. It is important at this stage to consider the criteria for selecting source materials. Of course, one does not expect, under these circumstances, that the student will search for primary sources. What is necessary is the choice of reliable secondary materials. Review books in educational history are virtually valueless, since they contain but bare bones, mere scraps of information. A good textbook, e.g., Cubberley's *Public Education in the United States*, is obviously to be preferred as a starting point. But neither Cubberley, nor Knight, nor any other standard author offers much background information on physical education; they are chiefly useful for a broad, general understanding of the forces and events shaping modern secondary education in the United States. Nor, for that matter, will the student gain much enlightenment on physical education from such a specialized text as I. L. Kandel's *History of Secondary Education* or even from the more specialized *The Making of Our Middle Schools*, by Elmer E. Brown. Turning to historical works in physical education, the student will find part of a chapter on the American high school in Emmett A. Rice's *A Brief History of Physical Education* (revised

edition, New York, Barnes, 1929) and miscellaneous information of greater or lesser relevance in Fred E. Leonard and George B. Affleck's *A Guide to the History of Physical Education* (third edition, Philadelphia, Lea and Febiger, 1947). There is no special chapter on the secondary school in Norma Schwendener's *A History of Physical Education in the United States* (New York: Barnes, 1942), and the index is far from helpful, but the student will find useful facts scattered throughout the volume. Whatever information is gleaned from the books by Rice, Leonard and Affleck, and Schwendener, must be supplemented by background material on American secondary education obtainable in the books already mentioned, since the data in the histories of physical education are rarely interpreted within their historical frames of reference. Thus, to write a single chapter on the development of physical education in the American high school, the student will find it necessary to use a variety of secondary works before he can emerge with a satisfactory account. This labor is especially required in this instance because of the dearth of special writings such as monographs.

In general, wherever there is an abundance of special research studies, the student should make use of some of them in conjunction with the better textbooks and general works. If possible, he should consult at least two publications on a single phase of the topic, thus applying the principle of checking one source against another. An assortment of valid secondary materials, especially research monographs, will go a long way toward the making of a reliable historical survey. The basic points to keep in mind are that an historical writer, even of a single chapter, should steer clear of the textbook temptation and that he should avoid generalizations which are unwarranted on the basis of available evidence.

8. THE SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE ON A TOPIC. With regard to the summary of the literature on a topic, there is little to say in this book, since this is not an historical procedure. The summary provides information on the methods and results of previous investigations on a certain educational problem. However, in view of the fact that these studies belong to the past, they might be made historically mean-

ingful by the application of some of the principles of the historical method. If the student should secure a representative collection of these researches over a period of time, he might be able to distinguish certain trends and draw conclusions, in accordance with the procedures outlined on previous pages. There does not seem to be any good reason why this should not be done. A meaningful synthesis would seem to be of greater practical value than a collection of apparently unrelated materials. In a sense, the writer can give a reasonable historical account of the research done on his special field of interest.

CONCLUSION

At long last, the detailed chapter on the application of the historical method of research to educational questions is nearing completion. Perhaps the best summary would be the repetition of several principles constantly reiterated throughout the chapter. A fact is not demonstrable unless buttressed by appropriate evidence derived from authenticated primary sources or, under certain conditions, from genuine secondary sources. Data must be utilized for what they are worth, and no more; it is dangerous to draw imaginative inferences. The research worker must endeavor to be thoroughgoing in his search for sources, conscientious in his evaluation, cautious and fair-minded in his interpretation, and skillful in his synthesis. It is well to remember with Gray C. Boyce, "When the sources are silent the wise do not speak" ("American Studies in Medieval Education," in S. Harrison Thomson, editor, *Progress in Medieval and Renaissance Studies in the United States and Canada*, Boulder, University of Colorado, 1947, p. 26). Also helpful is the remark by H. G. Good, "The history of education is history, having the same ends, accepting the same standards, using like materials, and employing the same critical and constructive processes" ("Historical Research in Education," *Educational Research Bulletin*, IX, January 8, 1930, p. 9).

The historical method of educational research as discussed in this book should not be regarded as being made up of separate parts or phases, although the presentation was necessarily organized in that

fashion. Actually, the historical method is an entity, and, with sufficient practice, the student will become increasingly efficient in utilizing it. He will then perform the various operations in an integrated manner, much in the same way as he will be expected to compose his narrative. Despite the fact that the student has been repeatedly urged to question, check, weigh, and appraise the source materials he is working with, it is not to be inferred that a consistent policy of doubt is most profitable in historical research. The scientific method, it is true, encourages doubt, but it also teaches that doubt may be replaced by reasonable certainty whenever there is validated evidence to warrant a solution. A reserved attitude is an asset in historical research, but perennial skepticism leads to indecision and ultimately to confusion. The golden mean can be attained by conscientious application of the tried and tested principles of scientific historiography.

CHAPTER VI

Note-Taking and Documentation

Success in historical writing depends, in a large measure, upon the student's ability to read purposefully and to record his data accurately. No matter how well one masters the theory and techniques of historiography, he will never produce a worthwhile historical document unless he takes particular pains with the mechanics of the craft. The apparently insignificant procedure of note-taking must command the student's attention all through the stages of selection, evaluation, and interpretation of the sources. Nothing should be left to the memory, not even the simplest fact that has any bearing on the problem.

NOTES

This chapter will treat in a brief manner the accepted practices in reading, note-taking, and documentation. There is no need to present long discussions, as in the previous chapter; the student can find elaborate treatments in Earle W. Dow's *Principles of a Note-System for Historical Studies* and in the better research manuals. Note-taking, according to Cecil B. Williams and Allan H. Stevenson's *A Research Manual* (New York: Harper, 1940, p. 51), is "a selective process by means of which a reader or listener works materials into a form that will be usable to him in the near or distant future." But before note-taking can be described, it will be necessary to say something about the reading technique that is helpful in research.

Reading Procedures

It is unnecessary for the student to wait until he has a complete bibliography before he begins to read his source materials. In fact, the sooner he begins to read, the better it will be for him in the long run. As he reads, his span of knowledge increases and he is in a better position to judge the aptness and accuracy of future additions to his bibliography.

Some students carry the impression that they are required to read the book in its entirety, if it is on the list of useful titles for their topic. In general, this is not the case, particularly in the preparation of course reports. Yet, the decision whether to read a book in full or not depends upon the nature of the topic. A student who is writing on the educational philosophy of Francis Bacon should read such works as *Novum Organum* and *The Advancement of Learning* with as few omissions as possible, else it would be difficult, if not impossible, to present an accurate description of Bacon's ideas. On the other hand, works of an informative nature, such as biographies, encyclopedia and periodical articles, general educational histories and monographs, and the like, need only be read insofar as the contents have a bearing upon the student's topic.

Crump recommends that the student develop "the power of rapid and superficial reading," which is "a powerful weapon and a valuable talent" in historical research (*History and Historical Research*, p. 81). Indeed, the art of skimming is a *sine qua non* for overcoming the hurdle of examining a host of source materials. The student should get into the habit of checking the table of contents and the index of a book for headings of interest to him. Then he should thumb through the pages with an eye toward catching any additional material not covered by the table of contents or the index. By keeping a record of the pages that he should read, the student will save himself the trouble of searching again for the elusive information which he located during the initial skimming. A second and somewhat slower reading will help the student fix the data in mind and ready for transcription into his notes. It should be empha-

sized that the process of skimming is not without its shortcomings. In the first place, too rapid a rate of reading may result in the failure to find important information. Second, the student may be distracted by the tempting highways and byways of his subject and may, consequently, lose valuable time. (Sometimes, by way of contrast, the student will locate in this manner interesting material which will enrich his report.) Third, as Crump points out, skimming is dangerous, because "the reader who forms the habit of reading fast, of reading not by words or even sentences, but by whole pages or paragraphs, sometimes loses the power of reading slowly and profoundly."

As the student reads he should record factual information and whatever impressions occur to him. After he has read his source, he should check his notes for accuracy and completeness. In this way he will spare himself the effort of returning to his source materials at a later date to verify his notation.

Recording of Quotations

There are several types of notes. The one that seems the most obvious is the direct quotation. This verbatim note must in all cases be enclosed within quotation marks. The beginner is tempted to quote profusely, but this should be done only in the case of very important data or when the author has expressed himself in particularly felicitous phrases. Omission of words at the beginning of the middle of a quotation are indicated by three consecutive dots (...), while explanatory words inserted by the historian into a quotation are enclosed within brackets. To show that the writer of a source was responsible for incorrect spelling, terms, or language usage, it is customary to put "sic!" in brackets following the word or words presumed to be inaccurate. It is essential that quotations be copied meticulously and precisely as they appear in the sources.

The student, in most cases, will want to express in his own words what he had read in his source materials. The procedures that he might use are the abstract, summary, paraphrase, condensation, or précis. There are some technical differences in meaning among

these terms—the student may find proper definitions in research manuals—but they are of little concern at this point. What is important is that the student actually use his own terminology. Expressions originating in the source must be set off by quotation marks even in the midst of one's paraphrase. The reader's interpolated comment should be enclosed within brackets, so as to be distinct from the opinions of the author of the source.

Most historians record their notes on loose sheets of paper of varying sizes and bibliographical information on 3x5 cards. Some students may find a loose-leaf notebook convenient to use, but it is doubtful if they can profit by keeping their notes in a bound notebook, since the pages cannot be rearranged at will. In general, it is good practice to confine one fact to a sheet, even though this tends to consume much space. To crowd too many items on a single page would be to invite oversights when some sub-topics are being considered. Only one side of a sheet should be used, since it is easy to overlook the reverse side. Each sheet should contain a heading corresponding to a topic or sub-topic in the original outline, thereby making it easy for the student to reassemble his notes prior to the synthesis. It is not necessary to insert on each sheet the full bibliographical information on the source from which the notes are taken. Some writers put these data on the first of several sheets containing notes from a single source, adding short titles and other distinguishing marks to keep the sheet from becoming misplaced. Page references to the source are customarily placed to the left of the notes. If sheets and library cards of varying sizes and colors are available, the student can simplify his problem of identifying notes by assigning a specific color or paper size to a particular topic or sub-topic. Index tabs of various colors are also serviceable in this respect.

The Dangers of Plagiarism

Mention has been made of the necessity of being careful in the use of quotation marks whenever a writer borrows the words of another. It is likewise essential to give credit even if one uses facts and ideas embodied in a publication. Neglect to do so leaves the writer open

to the charge of plagiarism. Porter G. Perrin defines plagiarism as "offering as one's own, material as it has been written by another" (*Writer's Guide and Index to English*, Chicago, Scott, Foresman, 1942, p. 650). It makes little difference whether the material taken only consists of a few sentences; it is the ethical principle involved that is important. Students vary in their motives when it comes to plagiarism. Some are downright dishonest, some are presumably testing the ability of the instructor to detect borrowed material, some fall prey because of the lack of time to do original research, some do not have the ability to write a report or to analyze a problem, and some are not aware that uncredited borrowing is wrong. At the bottom of these cases is the grade mania which is prevalent in most institutions of higher learning. It is evident, because of the more or less widespread practice of plagiarism, that students do not realize that unlicensed borrowing, like crime, does not pay; sooner or later some alert instructor will catch the culprit. The student should go to his instructor to discuss candidly his problem and to obtain additional help. He should also consult research manuals for helpful suggestions. This very book on the application of the techniques of historical research in the field of education is designed to provide the maximum amount of guidance and to furnish the confidence necessary to complete research projects successfully. Before closing this topic, reference should be made to the fact that students are not the only ones who indulge in the habit of plagiarism. It is unfortunate, but nonetheless true, that authors in many fields of subject matter are grossly neglectful of literary ethics and legal practice. It is equally unfortunate that few persons have sufficient daring to publicize and denounce such cases. The incidence of plagiarism has undoubtedly given research a bad name, as is clear from the oft-repeated remark that a doctoral dissertation represents copying from books that no one has ever read into a book that no one ever will. The late Brander Matthews is reported to have distinguished originality from plagiarism in this wise: "In the case of the first man to use an anecdote there is originality. In the case of the second man there is plagiarism. With the third man, it is lack

of originality; and with the fourth man, it is drawing from the common stock of the race." To which the late Nicholas Murray Butler is said to have added "yes, and in the fifth case, it is research" (quoted in Edgar W. Knight, "Getting Ahead by Degrees," *School and Society*, vol. 53, April 26, 1941, p. 523). Finally, the nineteenth-century American historian, George Bancroft, has been known to abandon footnotes on the ground that other historians have utilized his sources without giving his due credit.

Bibliographical Data

The bibliography card should contain the following information in the case of a book: full name of author, complete title of book, number of volumes, edition (if other than first), place of publication, publisher, and date of publication. Some colleges also require that the student include the pagination of the book. A bibliographical entry for a periodical article should contain the following: full name of author, complete title of article, name of periodical, volume number, month and year of publication, and the inclusive pages. In some institutions the number of the issue is also called for. An encyclopedia article should include the full name of the author, full title of article, name of encyclopedia, volume, date, and inclusive pages. In publications written by many authors, the full names of three should be included at the most, and the presence of other authors might be indicated by the addition of "*et al.*" after the names of the authors. A chapter contributed by one author to a book written or edited by another should carry the author's name, title of chapter, inclusive pages, name of the author or editor of the book, and the rest of the information required for a book. In addition to the bibliographical data, the student should append a brief statement describing the content of the book or article, its value for research purposes, and any special viewpoint or bias, if detectable. For sample annotations, the student is referred to the bibliographies earlier in the book. Bibliographical comment should be brief and to the point. Occasionally, there may be room for the insertion of a genuinely witty remark. Thus, Tom B. Jones describes *Los Gringos* (New

York, 1849), by Lt. Wise, U. S. N., as follows: "Wise never heard of the Good Neighbor Policy. This is an impossible book. He should have been court-martialed" (*South America Rediscovered*, Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1949, p. 257).

A few additional pointers will serve to save the student's time and to help him to attain greater accuracy. The inclusion of the library call number on a corner of the bibliography card will ensure quick location of an item for repeated use. This information should not be given in the final bibliography of the study. The location of a manuscript or other rare primary source should be specified in the final bibliography. This would enable other research workers to obtain access to such materials.

THE TECHNIQUE OF DOCUMENTATION

Any work using the procedures of scientific research must indicate the precise origin of quoted and paraphrased statements, as well as of data not generally known. The function of documentary proof is also to provide the support for a writer's solution of an historical problem. It is customary to utilize one of various forms of footnoting to reveal the sources, to furnish explanatory data, and to specify qualifications upon statements made in the narrative proper.

Footnotes

Students are frequently puzzled as to when documentary proof is necessary. Hockett lays down the general rule that a writer of a research report should "cite his authority or source for every statement, fact, opinion, or conclusion (save his own) stated in the text" (*Introduction to Research in American History*, p. 117). However, well-known and obvious facts, such as the date of the Old Deluder Satan Act of Massachusetts, require no documentation. In cases where several items of information are derived from a single source, it is not necessary to supply a footnote for each; the student can merely use a single footnote at the end of the paragraph, preferably with the notation that the data presented have been taken from a particular source. The best practice seems to be to document as fully

as possible. As Hockett remarks, "It is better to err on the side of too many citations than to give too few" (p. 118). The student should also take care never to use another writer's footnotes or quotations from primary sources without giving due acknowledgment. Good examples of this technique will be found in historical monographs and in the more conscientious textbooks. Thus, Edwards and Richey, in *The School in the American Social Order* (pp. 80-81), quote the arrangements made by the city of Dedham in 1685 for the support of its school. However, since they did not examine this source at first hand, they cite the secondary source wherein they found it as follows: "*Dedham Records*, V, 164, as quoted in George Leroy Jackson, *The Development of School Support in Colonial Massachusetts*, pp. 45-46." To quote Hockett once more, "It is a species of dishonesty to cite a source only through a secondary work, without indicating that fact by the form used in the citation." (*loc. cit.*).

Footnotes may be presented in a variety of ways. Some prefer to place them at the bottom of each page; some, at the end of each chapter; while others, at the end of the study. The numbering of the footnotes can likewise be done according to different schemes—consecutively for each page or for the report as a whole. Some writers prefer to place the footnotes on the line immediately following the one containing the statement supported by the note. This system is recommended to those who wish to expedite their typing. In all such cases, the footnote should be set off by lines from the rest of the text.

The plan of footnotes used in this book requires a word of explanation. The present author has decided to conserve time and space by enclosing his footnote references in parenthesis either in the middle or at the end of a sentence. The advantage of this method lies in the fact that the authority is given along with the statement itself. Used excessively, this system is likely to interrupt the reader's train of thought. For authority as to the use of this device of footnoting the student is referred to Ward G. Reeder's *How to Write A Thesis* (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1925, pp. 62-63).

All essential elements of a bibliographical reference, as specified

in a previous chapter, should be given the first time it is used in a footnote. Thereafter, an abbreviated form, consisting of author and title, or simply author alone, is sufficient for identifying one's authorities. Many writers prefer to substitute standard abbreviations for the author and book in all footnotes following the first. Thus, the first footnote immediately after the one in which the full bibliographical data are given may omit all identification of the source and use instead the abbreviation of the source and use *ibid.* (*ibidem*, Latin for "the same"). The only other element that must be included in this footnote is the page reference, if it is other than the one cited in the previous footnote. In cases where several other footnotes intervene between the first citation of a certain source and the next time it is mentioned, the writer may use *op. cit.* (*opere citato*, Latin for "in the work cited") in place of the title. However, the name of the author must precede this abbreviation. Furthermore, whenever there exists an opportunity for confusion, as when several books by the same author are cited, then the title should be added. A third abbreviation, *loc. cit.* (*loco citato*, Latin for "in the place cited") may be employed instead of the title and author in cases where reference is made to the identical work and page previously cited. It is considered good form to repeat the author's name and the book's title if about half a dozen pages have elapsed since the last mention in the footnotes.

For more detailed suggestions on documentation the student may turn to the following works: Eleanor M. Witmer and Ethel M. Feagley, *Beginner's Guide to Bibliography* (third edition, New York, Teachers College Library, Columbia University, 1947); Cecil B. Williams and Allan H. Stevenson, *A Research Manual* (New York: Harper 1940); Livia Appel, *Bibliographical Citation in the Social Sciences* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1940), reprinted as an appendix to Gilbert J. Garraghan, *A Guide to Historical Method* (New York: Fordham University Press, 1945); and G. Louis Joughin, *Basic Reference Forms* (New York: Crofts, 1941). Helpful hints will also be found in research textbooks and guides to the preparation of dissertations.

The question as to the precise order of the bibliographical elements in a footnote is of small moment. The student may follow the style of the historical monographs and periodicals. There would seem to be no valid objection to any system, so long as it includes all the essential data and is adhered to consistently. However, many universities issue style manuals which specify the order of citation and other procedures in the presentation of course reports and dissertations. It behooves the student to conform to the regulations laid down by his institution's manual.

CHAPTER VII

The Technique of Presentation

The time eventually arrives when the student must get set to incorporate all his data and interpretations into a unified document. In other words, the research worker now becomes a writer. Sometimes this transition is a difficult one, and a student may be appalled by the sight of blank pages staring at him. There are instances when students put off the task of writing from day to day until the deadline draws dangerously closer. There is no real reason for an historical writer to regard with trepidation the process of composition, particularly if he does not insist on achieving perfect fluency the moment he puts pen to paper. Great writers throughout the history of literature have been known to write, revise, rewrite, and revise again. Very few are capable of producing literary masterpieces without continual modification of most parts of their manuscripts. Consequently, the student should not feel amiss if he finds that he has to change portions of his report before he is already to submit it to his instructor.

Before the student begins to write, he should make certain that he has done all the necessary preliminary work, such as collecting, evaluating, and interpreting his source materials; that he has obtained full knowledge of his facts and an understanding of their interrelationship; and that he has a clear conception of his conclusions. All notes and quotations should now be classified in accordance with the various subdivisions of the revised outline, which now becomes the working blueprint for the writing of the report. It may

be helpful to label these notes in some manner so that they will not become misplaced. The best place to work is on a large table, allowing the student to spread out his notes so that he can see at a glance many of them which have a direct bearing on a single sub-topic. Repeated examination of the notes will set up trends of thought regarding methods of synthesis. It is good to digest and reflect over the material before commencing to write.

PUTTING PEN TO PAPER

The student should then begin to write as fluently as he can, pursuing each sub-topic as far as it will go. Some writers prefer to put but one paragraph on a sheet of paper to allow for additional development and changes. No particular attention should be given at this stage to the refinements of literary style or other niceties of composition. What matters is that the student get his first draft on paper with as few hitches as possible.

Quotations

It is important, as Hockett emphasizes, to avoid frequent series of quotations: "The novice sometimes misconceives the task of composition as a mere putting together of quoted passages, as beads are strung." The student should use long quotations rather sparingly and, instead, should form the habit of paraphrasing carefully the material he is using. At the same time, he has the opportunity of giving expression to his own reaction to the ideas he is discussing. In this way the historical narrative gains fluency and vivacity. Apart from producing a report which contains too much of the work of others, even if acknowledged, and too little of his own, the student who overquotes gives the impression that he has done but little more than compile the opinions of various writers. It is unfortunate that professional educators sometimes stoop to this practice. Thus, a familiar textbook on the differing philosophies of American education makes liberal use of long quotations from many thinkers, but includes relatively few remarks by the compiler. This is not to say that anthologies do not have their place in the literature; there is no doubt that

they perform a highly useful function, and this book has listed a number of them in an earlier chapter. However, a textbook is quite another matter; and an author who purports to present a particular subject in textbook form should offer a connected discourse, as the student is expected to, with well-spaced and apt quotations from his sources. To quote Hockett once more, "To compose a monograph largely of quotations would be equivalent to setting raw materials before the reader." Another useful caution for the writer is to avoid the interjection of personal bias as far as he can. This point has been made before in this book and need not be belabored here.

Initial and Final Drafts

The chief object of the first draft is to provide the student with a peg upon which to hang his final narrative. This means that he must endeavor to compose his report in a logical manner, proceeding, as a teacher does, from the general to the specific and from the known to the unknown. Here is a good opportunity to check citations, facts, and other details, since the possibility for error looms large when these items of information are transcribed for the notes.

Now comes the preparation of the final stage of the report. The writer rereads the first draft, noting in the margins any passages that require elaboration and any other necessary changes. He then systematically revises the preliminary form of the report, polishing the style and vitalizing the content. The quotations may be checked once more and the footnotes inserted in the required manner. He should also add all necessary elements to the complete report—preface, conclusions, bibliography, and other appended matter.

In brief, the writer must show that he has digested the raw materials with which he has worked and that he is capable of presenting it in a manner calculated to interest and inform the reader. Sherman Kent says, "Writing history is an act of individual creation; it is not the simple patching together of bits of information gotten from the sources" (*Writing History*, p. 39). A well-performed job of historical composition, like that of research, will be a source of much satisfaction to the conscientious individual.

THE REPORT AS A UNIT

A consideration of the report as a unit should be useful to the student, both graduate and undergraduate, in the final check-up. It is not necessary in this volume to give detailed suggestions as to the title page, preface, table of contents, and introduction, since these are thoroughly discussed in thesis manuals and research guides in the general field of writing. For a convenient summary of this part of the report, the student may turn to Hockett (*Introduction to Research in American History*, pp. 130-32). Suffice it to say that the student should not neglect these matters, mechanical as they may seem in comparison with the creative portions of his study.

Subdivisions of the Text

Attention should then be directed to the text proper. Unless the research project is very brief, the material should be divided into chapter form. Even then, the writer can break up his content by means of sub-headings. He should be especially careful to write clearly and concisely; that is, to use precisely defined terminology with consistency and to omit irrelevant data ("padding"). The important details should be brought out in clear relief by the various techniques of emphasis employed in composition. As Nevins remarks, "A good history is like a good map; there may be much detail but the important features always stand out in large type" (*Masters' Essays in History*, p. 9). Ambiguously phrased sentences becloud the reader's mind and should, in consequence, be removed from the text. In this connection it will be helpful to give special attention to expressions which had different meanings in previous eras. Thus, as indicated earlier in this book, the meaning of the term "public school" throughout a large part of the nineteenth century was not identical with current usage. Similarly, the British and the American definitions of this term, and others such as "approved school," do not coincide. To enhance the possibility of attaining a flowing, interesting style, the student should refrain from employing hackneyed expressions or clichés. He should also try to follow the accepted usage in grammar, spelling, and punctua-

tion; to avoid involved sentence structure; to eliminate partially contradictory statements; to impose the necessary qualifying words upon factual assertions, opinions, and conclusions; to verify the accuracy of quotations; to check the aptness of the documentation; to provide brief summary at the conclusion of each chapter and a general, evaluative summary at the end of the report; and to maintain consistently the logical development of the entire report.

The bibliography which is appended to the study should contain brief annotations on the content and usefulness of the various items. Examples of annotated bibliographies will be found in an earlier chapter. General historians prefer a critical essay on source materials to a formal bibliography. The student may choose the bibliographical form which is most convenient to himself and his readers. Whatever the type of bibliography, it should include only those materials actually cited in the report. There is a tendency on the part of students to "pad" a study with titles which they have not only not used, but have not even seen. A supplementary list of references which were consulted but not cited may be placed after the main listing. A third type of bibliography containing items which may be of interest to the readers of those which were inaccessible to the writer may be added.

The Mechanical Details of the Report

Most of the following remarks, dealing with the mechanical details of the report, will be of primary interest to students preparing research studies in undergraduate and graduate courses in educational history, rather than to authors of masters' or doctors' dissertations:

1. General Form

- a. Write legibly in ink on one side of the paper. Leave a reasonable amount of space between lines and a liberal margin on the left.
- b. If the report is typed, the lines should be double-spaced. Use 8½" x 11" paper. Leave a 1¼" margin on the left and 1" margins on the top and bottom of the sheet.

- c. In either case, keep a duplicate copy. This is to ensure the student against the loss or misplacement of his manuscript.
 - d. The report should be enclosed in a folder, with the student's name and class, date of submittal, and the instructor's name on the outside.
2. Title-page information
- a. The full title of the report.
 - b. Student's and instructor's names.
 - c. Number of the course and the hour of meeting.
 - d. Date of submittal.
3. Table of contents
- a. This should contain the chapter headings and the chief sub-headings.
 - b. Page numbers should be entered for each heading or sub-heading.
4. Preface
- a. The student should show how the topic is related to his field of interest or how it has developed out of any other special interest.
 - b. Indicate any other reasons for selecting a particular topic.
5. Pagination
- a. The prefatory matter usually employs Roman numerals, while the text proper uses the Arabic.
 - b. The pages should be numbered consecutively throughout the report.
6. Footnotes
- a. These should be numbered consecutively for each page or for the chapter as a whole. (See the earlier discussion on the form of footnote citation.)
 - b. If desired, the footnotes may be placed in a body at the end of each chapter.
7. Summary and conclusions.
- a. The summary recapitulates briefly the significant details brought forth in the report.
 - b. The conclusions should indicate the student's evaluation of his topic, any particular influences upon later educational thought and practice, and any implications for the future. He should also mention any special values, knowledge or outlook derived as a result of his study. If the student received no benefits from his research, he should point out the reasons therefor.

8. Bibliography

- a. If he student uses the list form, he should arrange each bibliography alphabetically and should include the brief annotations.
- b. Students using many primary sources should keep these apart from the secondary. The arrangement in this case may be either chronological or alphabetical, depending upon which is more serviceable.
- c. The bibliographical essay may be organized on a topical basis, unless there is a greater advantage in chronological order.

9. Appendix

- a. Excerpts from unpublished or inaccessible source materials.
- b. Original texts of translated materials, if the student did his own translations.
- c. Translations of foreign citations which have been included in the body of the report. These are not usually necessary in the case of the commonly known languages, such as French and German.
- d. Any other matter of interest and pertinence to the study.

Students often ask the instructor about the minimum length of a report. It is not easy to answer this question. Some of the most significant researches in science and mathematics have been presented in half-a-dozen pages or less. In general, historical reports tend toward greater length. It is safe to say, on the basis of classroom experience, that it takes at least a dozen, double-spaced, typewritten pages to develop a semester topic satisfactorily. Students will find, however, that they will have considerable difficulty in keeping their reports brief. Dissertations, naturally enough, are rather long documents. The principle would seem to be to let the writer judge for himself, in accordance with the best practices of research and composition, what the optimum length of his report should be.

CHAPTER VIII

Evaluation of the Research Report in Educational History

It is natural for the writer to be interested in the validity of his study. Students who prepare course reports generally receive a critique of their effort by the instructor. The dissertations of degree-candidates are appraised by the sponsors and reading committees. Authors of monographs see their studies evaluated by reviewers in the scholarly and professional journals, and by reactions from their colleagues in their own and in other institutions. It will be helpful to those doing research in educational history to consider the customary standards by which one level of work is distinguished from another. In this way the writer has a definite idea of what is expected of him.

STANDARDS FOR THE TERM REPORT

A term or course report is a presentation of the findings of a student after a period of research on a clearly defined topic of restricted scope or on a broader subject which permits some originality of thought and synthesis. The student, whether graduate or undergraduate, is not expected, under ordinary circumstances, to make extensive use of primary materials. On the other hand, it is not desirable for him to rely excessively on textbook and encyclopedia sources. It would seem best for the writer of a course report to make widespread use of monographic materials and scholarly articles,

and to utilize textbooks most sparingly, except as orientation to the area covered by the scope of the study. Primary sources are indispensable when a student desires to write on the views of a person who has contributed to educational growth and development. Thus, a study of the educational philosophy of Thomas Jefferson presupposes that the student will read and cite the pertinent letters, the educational bills, and the other expressions of the third president's views on education. These are readily accessible in the collected writings of Jefferson, as well as in the special treatments of the Virginian as an educational philosopher. Of course, it will be advisable for the student to find out what other educators have had to say about Jefferson's thought, what was the contemporary fate of his ideas, and what his influence has been since his death. For this information the student may consult various monographs and even the better type of textbook. In instances where the educator has written copiously, the student, after examining the critical and bibliographical works on his subject, need only select the man's most representative, characteristic, and influential writings for close analysis. Thus, research on the educational thought of William Chandler Bagley should be based on such volumes as *Determinism in Education*, *The Educative Process*, *Education, Crime, and Social Progress*, and *Education and Emergent Man*, as well as on his articles on Essentialism. More advanced students, especially graduates, should also peek into Bagley's other writings for hints as to his educational thinking. Course papers on the ideas of foreign educators, such as Comenius, Pestalozzi, and Herbart, can safely be based on good translations of their works. As a general rule, a graduate paper should show a better grade of research work than an undergraduate report; that is, it should utilize a greater variety of source materials, with more reliance upon the primary variety, and should reflect a more mature type of interpretation and evaluation.

A Check-List for the Term Report

The check-list reproduced here has been used to evaluate the reports submitted in the author's classes, graduate and undergraduate.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

CHECK-LIST FOR TERM REPORTS IN THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION

DR. WILLIAM W. BRICKMAN

*Department of History and Philosophy of Education**Name*.....*Course*.....*Title of Report*.....*Date*.....**I. SOURCES**

	<i>Frequent</i>	<i>Occasional</i>	<i>Rare</i>	<i>Never</i>
1. Use of primary sources				
2. Selection of secondary sources	<i>Good</i>	<i>Fair</i>	<i>Poor</i>	
3. Use of tertiary works	<i>Yes</i>		<i>No</i>	

II. TREATMENT OF SOURCES

	<i>Frequent</i>	<i>Occasional</i>	<i>Rare</i>	<i>Never</i>
1. Evaluation of sources				
2. Interpretation of facts				
3. Relationships among facts				

III. THE REPORT AS A UNIT

	<i>Good</i>	<i>Fair</i>	<i>Poor</i>
1. Logical organization			
2. Clarity of style			
3. Conciseness in expression			
4. Carefulness in quotation			
5. Adequacy of documentation			
6. Summary and evaluation			
7. Annotated bibliography			

Comment.....

.....

.....

Grade.....

STANDARDS FOR THESES AND DISSERTATIONS

One of the deplorable developments in graduate education in the United States has been the relatively recent trend away from the requirement of a master's thesis in many institutions. Apart from its inherent values to the student—practice in the scientific method of obtaining, evaluating, interpreting, and organizing information—the master's thesis also serves as a training ground for the research techniques which will be applied on a larger scale in a doctoral dissertation. Unfortunately, graduate students in schools of education are steered away by guidance experts from the writing of a master's thesis, and when they are faced by the formidable task of a doctoral dissertation they waste valuable time in faltering, aimless movements. A master's thesis should be more than a glorified semester report or a pint-sized version of a doctoral document; it should, rather, represent a thorough analysis of a delimited problem based upon the usage of the available primary sources and the best monographic materials. There is no sound pedagogical reason for encouraging master's candidates, as some institutions do, to write on broad topics which have been thoroughly explored by competent research workers and to make widespread use of secondary sources, frequently of textbooks. The value of this type of research to the student is exceedingly small, whether or not he will continue for a higher degree. It is the duty of higher education to raise the level of research, not to debase it. Graduate professors who sponsor masters' theses should insist upon the consistent, careful application of the canons of historiography.

The difference between a master's thesis and a doctor's dissertation should lie not in methodology of research, but in the extensiveness and intensiveness of that research. The doctoral candidate is expected to make a notable contribution to the understanding of his historical problem. Graduate faculties are fond of asking for an "original" contribution to educational research. The fact of the matter is that a candidate who is conscientious in his location and evaluation of his source materials, thorough in his analysis and treatment of his problem, logically consistent and incisive in his interpretation,

and properly modest and objective in his conclusions will *ipso facto* present an "original" contribution, even though the topic or part of it has already been done before. The scientific method of research implies constant checking and re-checking of results obtained by other investigators, carried on in an area that has been explored on a previous occasion. Care should be exercised, however, to discourage duplication in cases where the research has been done with exemplary excellence and where the conclusions have already been accepted by the recognized authorities in the field. In brief, some flexibility is desirable in the procedure of approving subjects for doctoral dissertations.

Another aspect of the problem of evaluating doctoral research in educational history is the nature of the sponsoring and reading committees. The cause of scientific historiography is not served when faculty members without historical training accept the sponsorship of doctoral dissertations in educational history. For some reason, which need not be discussed in this volume, many professors of other subjects in schools of education regard themselves as authorities on educational history, at the very least on the historical background of their specialty. Now it may very well be that the professor of the teaching of mathematics may know the historical background of his subject better than anyone else on the faculty, but the fact remains that he is rarely equipped with the skills of educational historiography. In many institutions, men of this kind become sponsors of dissertations dealing with the history of their subject. There is no reason why this professor should not serve as a sponsor or reader of the dissertation, but it is hard to see how historical scholarship is aided when he assumes the direction of a student preparing an historical dissertation. There are, moreover, instances when dissertations committees supervising historical research do not include a single historian. A likely outcome of this situation is a doctoral dissertation which barely meets the standard of a master's thesis. The writer knows of an instance of this sort where the candidate wrote a document based on secondary, including textbook, sources, without even mentioning the standard monograph on his chosen subject.

Primary sources were conspicuously absent, and the scope of the topic was far too broad to be treated with any degree of thoroughness.

QUALIFICATIONS OF THE ADVANCED EDUCATIONAL HISTORIAN

There may be some value, in the concluding paragraphs of this book, to discuss briefly the equipment and qualifications of the advanced research worker in educational history. Garraghan, in his thoroughgoing manual, *A Guide to Historical Method* (pp. 43-54), states that the competent historian should possess the following characteristics: zeal to seek and present the truth, a sound critical judgment, an objective attitude, an inordinate amount of patience and perseverance, and a type of mental alertness which makes it possible to recognize and utilize every item of information helpful in the mastery of one's subject. Moreover, "A reliable memory, to say nothing of good judgment and constructive imagination, is a *sine qua non* in the art of history-writing" (p. 130). To this may be added the passion for perfection, accuracy and thoroughness; and the ability to elicit information from foreign-language sources. The research worker must be able to perform, in the words of Frederic S. Klein (*Research Methods in History*, p. 42), "essentially, a type of detective work more complicated than that of Sherlock Holmes," in view of the fact that "the clues may be concealed or obliterated to a greater extent than the most imaginative fiction would dare to mention." In short, he must become a sleuth of the stacks, a veritable bibliographical bloodhound. Not to be forgotten are the attributes of modesty and humility, the true hallmarks of a scholar. It is helpful in this regard to heed the sage advice of Gray C. Boyce, "When the sources are silent the wise do not speak."

These qualities should be common to all practitioners in the art of writing history. Research workers in educational history should be equipped, in addition, with a good knowledge of general history, history of religion, sociology, psychology, economics, and philosophy, since many topics are closely integrated with these fields. It goes

without saying that they should have an intimate knowledge of the general and specialized aspects of the history of education from earliest times onward. It is difficult to do a really accurate and meaningful study in educational history, especially of the United States, if one has not been exposed to the joys and sorrows of daily classroom teaching; contact with children, adolescents, and parents; cooperation or conflict with supervisors, administrators, boards of education, and the community at large; and a multitude of other experiences which enable the historian to comprehend and appreciate the inner development of education. However, desirable as these educational experiences are for the student who undertakes to do research in educational history, they cannot and should not be expected to compensate for a weak grasp of the techniques of historiography.

In closing, the author ventures to hope that the principles and procedures outlined in this manual will aid students and others concerned with educational history toward a better appreciation of it as an area of knowledge and inquiry. Perhaps this treatise may encourage serious students to undertake research in this fascinating field, one of the few in the general subject of education that can lay claim to pretensions of scholarship. The renaissance in the history of education is long overdue. The time has come when it must reassert itself in the programs of study of the schools of education, both as a legitimate content course and as a professionalized study in teacher education. It is this twofold nature of the history of education that must be recognized by educational specialists if their subject is to achieve any status whatsoever. Greater attention to the dual role of educational history, with suitable stress on the scientific and logical aspects of the study of its problems, will go a long way toward emancipating it from its deserved reputation as a repository of dull and useless facts. If this book also succeeds in scaring away from the teaching and writing of educational history those persons who regard the field as a "snap" and as a locale for anyone, regardless of aptitude, to roam about at will, then its *raison d'être* will have been more than justified.

Subject Index

Note: Index numbers correspond to bibliography numbers in Chapters II, III, and IV.

- Activism, 247
(See also Progressive education)
Administration, educational, 34, 107, 188, 382
Adult education, 45, 70, 121, 242, 290 religious, thirteenth century, 157
Agricultural education, 214, 256, 425
Alberti, Leon Battista, 103
Alcott, A. Bronson, 268
American Journal of Education, 225
Apprenticeship, 130, 208
Aristotle, 371, 384, 433, 442
Arithmetic, 167, 301, 313, 459 prior to 1601, 331
(See also Mathematics; Textbooks)
Ascham, Roger, 457, 462
Athletics, 327
(See also Physical education)
Austria, medieval education in, 490

Bacon, Francis, 112
Barnard, Henry, 320, 347, 367, 468
Basedow, Johann B., 18, 112, 344, 393, 446
Bhagavad-Gita, 469
Binet, Alfred, 384
Boston Public Latin School, 124
Boccaccio, Giovanni, 452
Brothers of the Christian Schools, 56
Bruni, Leonardo, 103, 451, 473
Business education, 142
Byzantine Empire, education in, 126

Calvin, John, 387
Cambridge University, 173
Campanella, Tommaso, 105
Canada, education in, 294, 407
Carter, James G., 345
Castiglione, Baldassare, 104
Catholic education, 17, 42, 65, 159, 348, 394, 413, 427
Cattell, J. McKeen, 384
Cheever, Ezekiel, 345

China, 101, 147, 206, 230, 491
Christian education, 159, 252, 378 primitive, 123
Ciceron, Marcus Tullius, 115, 432, 442
Classical scholarship, 203
College Presidents, addresses and reports, 418
Comenius, Jan Amos, 112, 200, 307, 397, 446, 467, 478
Commissioner of Education, index to reports of, 336
Confucius, 397, 469, 491
Curriculum, 4, 41, 43, 500 colonial, 430 English universities (18th century), 477 High School (1860-1918), 216 medieval universities, 43, 181, 360, 361 public school (1837-1936), 149
Czechoslovakia, 16, 290

De La Salle, St. Jean Baptiste, 56
Dental Education, 80, 481
Dewey, John, 200, 268, 333, 351, 444
Discipline, in schools, 94
Dury, John, 466
Dutch schools, colonial, 14

Economics, as subject matter, 180
Egypt, 9, 22, 147, 154, 248
Elementary education, 96, 138, 183, 193, 290, 458 French, 150, 399 German, 138 science in, 228
Emerson, Ralph Waldo, 31, 443, 469
Eliot, Charles W., 347
England, 18, 48, 418, 421, 422, 423, 424, 488
(See also Great Britain)
English education, 46
English Grammar School, 235

- Erasmus, Desiderius, 344, 409, 473
 European educators, 350, 353
 German, 206, 354, 357, 401, 445
 (*See also* Italian educators)
- Fénelon, Archbishop, 442, 446, 467
 Fichte, Johann G., 467
 Foreign languages, teaching, 92, 118
 German, 437
 (*See also* Modern languages)
- Francke, August Hermann, 112, 393, 446
 Franklin, Benjamin, 31, 469, 475
 France, 7, 18, 23, 369
 Free schools, 127, 129
 Froebel, Friedrich, 18, 112, 393, 468
 German, teaching of, 231, 437
 Germany, 30, 249, 290
 (*See also* German educators)
- Goethe, Johann Wolfgang von, 175, 457
 Graduate education, 189, 201
 Great Britain, 157, 250, 253, 290
 educational acts in, 364
 (*See also* England)
- Greek schools, 100, 233, 479
 Guarino, Battista, 452, 474
 Hall, G. Stanley, 35, 338, 339, 345, 384
 Handicapped, education of, 36
 Harper, William Rainey, 347
 Harris, William Torrey, 35, 315, 319, 347
 Hartlib, Samuel, 466
 Harvard College, 171, 436
 Harvey, Thomas W., 347
 Heidelberg University, 197
 Herbart, Johann Friedrich, 18, 112, 299, 341, 445
 Higher education, 44, 67, 90, 95, 151, 189, 190, 197, 201, 226, 232, 233, 240, 283, 289, 290, 296, 389, 392, 402, 467, 476, 492
 Cambridge University, 173
 doctoral dissertations on, 322
 federal and state aid to, 59
 France, 155
 German, 185
 Greek, 233
 Harvard, 171
 land grant colleges, 199
 medieval, 139, 181, 439, 440, 454, 465, 494, 496, 503
 Yale, 385
 History, teaching of, 131
 Horn Book, 227
 India, 47, 49, 136, 169, 184, 206, 230
 Indiana, 429
 Indians, education of in U. S., 154, 478
 Infant education, 200
 (*See also* Pre-school education)
- Institutional history, universities and colleges, 78, 82, 283, 389
 Cambridge University, 173
 Harvard, 171
 Oxford University, 158
 Yale University, 385
 Spanish universities, 499
 International education, 164, 215, 355, 356, 450
 Irish Colleges, medieval, 179
 Isocrates, 433
 Italian educators, (15th century) 103, (16th century) 104, (17th century) 105, (18th century) 106
 renaissance, 472, 474
 (*See also* European educators)
- Italy, 18, 294
 James, William, 347, 435
 Japan, 137
 Jefferson, Thomas, 31, 362, 408, 469
 Jerome, Saint, 442
 Jesuits, 427
 (*See also* Catholic education)
- Jewish education, 9, 86, 270, 363, 400, 482, 483, 494
 16th to 18th centuries, 97
 since 18th century, 204
 in 19th century, 102
- Jewish educators, 352
 Journalism, education for, 217
 Kansas, 300
 Kant, Immanuel, 442
 Kindergarten, 229, 342
 Lao-Tse, 469, 491
 Latin, teaching of, 74
 in English Grammar School, 235
 Latin America, 261, 278, 290, 312, 490
 Liberal Arts, 43, 236
 (*See also* Higher education)
- Library, 36, 83
 ancient, 222
 college, 211
 medieval, 224
 public, 209
 Literature, 255, 283
 American child life, 140
 English, 250
 French, 68
 German, juvenile, 146
 schoolmaster in, 457, 464
 Little Schools of Port Royal, 55, 372
 Locke, John, 31, 112, 384, 446, 462

- Loyola, St. Ignatius, 395
 Luther, Martin, 344, 387, 409, 431, 442,
 443, 445
 Lutheran education, 447, 470
- McGuffey, William H., 347
 Mann, Horace, 76, 112, 239, 298, 317,
 319, 347, 351, 428, 435, 468
 Mason, Lowell, 196
 Mathematics, 313
 (*See also* Arithmetic)
 Measurement, in education, 506
 Medical education, 177, 232
 Melanchthon, Philipp, 305, 344, 387,
 403, 409
 Methodist education, 485
 Mexico, 154, 241
 Military education, ancient, 111
 Milton, John, 112, 463
 Modern languages, teaching of, 52
 "reform method," 62
 in 20th century, 501
 Monastic schools, 75, 110
 Montaigne, Michel de, 442
 Montessori, Maria, 353
 Morrill Act, 199, 389, 392
 Museum, in education, 242
 Music education, 196
 ancient, 111
- Negro education, 243, 272, 326, 484,
 492
 New Zealand, 321
 Normal School, 441
 Nursing education, 213
- Organized labor, contributions to
 education, 77
 Oregon, 329
 Oxford University, 158, 360, 361
- Palestine, 176
 (*See also* Jewish education)
- Parkhurst, Helen, 351
 Peabody, Elizabeth P., 342
 Periodicals, 292
 Pestalozzi, Johann Heinrich, 112, 168,
 175, 310, 393, 446, 457, 468
 Petrarch, Francesco, 449, 452, 472
 Philosophy, teaching of, 95
 Physical education, 152, 195, 230, 327
 ancient Greek and Roman, 111
 in Germany (18th century), 177
 in U. S. A., 207
 (*See also* Athletics)
- Piccolomini, Aeneas Silvius, 103, 452,
 472, 474
- Plato, 27, 31, 236, 386, 433, 442, 480
 Plutarch, 31, 433, 442, 469
 Pope Pius XI, encyclical of, 99
 Pre-school education, 98, 200, 202, 229,
 290
 (*See also* Infant education;
 Kindergarten)
- Primers, 306
 Primitive education, 9, 22, 35, 206,
 230, 340
 in North America, 325
 Private school, colonial, 453, 455
 Professional education, 36
 Progressive education, 89, 164, 247
 in Germany, 405
 Psychology, 174, 384
 teaching of, 95
 Public education, 34, 39, 40, 60, 117,
 123, 127, 143, 144, 161, 377, 379,
 380
 in colonial America, 129
 curriculum in, 149
 financing of, 219, 220
 Public Schools, 40, 157, 456, 492
 (*See also* Public education)
- Quaker education, 415, 476
 Pennsylvania, 246
 Quintilian, Marcus Fabius, 115, 397,
 433, 442
- Ratio Studiorum, 395, 413, 427
 Ratke, Wolfgang, 112, 446
 Reading, study of, 192, 276, 497
 in seventeenth and eighteenth
 centuries, 192
 teaching methods, 108
 Reconstruction period, 396
 influence on education, 145
 South, 488
- Religious education, 57, 97, 212, 447,
 470
 during thirteenth century, 156
 in public schools, 117
 (*See also* Catholic education; Jewish
 education; Lutheran education;
 Methodist education)
- Renaissance educators, 17, 244
 (*See also* European educators; German
 educators; Italian educators)
- Research, historical, 510-597
 in education, 598-642
 Rome, education in, 115, 147, 238
 Rousseau, Jean Jacques, 18, 112, 113,
 114, 366, 446, 457

220 GUIDE TO RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

- Rush, Benjamin, 120
Russia, 18, 119, 334
- Sarmiento, Domingo F., 451
Salzmann, Christian G., 446
Scandinavia, 294
School books, 297, 301, 306
 early American, 426
 eighteenth-nineteenth centuries, 410
 in England, 250
 German, 295
 fifteenth-seventeenth centuries, 273
School finance, 220, 290, 382
Science, in elementary schools, 228
Scientific movement in education, 293
Scotland, 251
Secondary education, 63, 133, 216, 284,
 290, 458
 academy system, 166
 curriculum, 500
 English, sixteenth century, 53
 French, seventeenth-twentieth
 centuries, 411
 German, 412
 in North Carolina, 376
 in Pennsylvania, 172
 social studies in, 198
Seneca, Marcus, 442
Shakespeare, William, 464
 education of, 53
Social studies, teaching of, 510
 before 1861, 198
Songs, medieval students', 462, 471
South America, 40, 370
Spain, 278, 281
St. Augustine, 446, 469
Spencer, Herbert, 18, 112, 148
Sturm, Johann, 344
Subject matter, in England, 16
 century, 234
Supervision, 34, 107, 188, 218, 382
- Tacitus, 433
Tappan, Henry P., 187
Teacher education, 109, 275, 316, 441
Teacher Colleges, 182
Teaching, freedom of, 56, 163
Teaching profession, 91
Testing, 96, 373
Texas, 87, 388
Textbooks, 297, 301, 302, 331, 495
 foreign language, 118
 grammar, 460
 mathematics, 313, 459
Thorndike, Edward L., 35, 330, 384
Turkish school, 14th century, 165
- University, 139, 184, 368, 467
 in ancient Greece, 233
 in eighteenth century England, 477
 medieval, 190, 197, 439, 440, 454,
 465, 494, 495, 503, 508
 Spanish, 499
 (*See also* Institutional history; Higher
 education)
- Vergerius, Petrus Paulus, 103, 452, 474
Vermont Medical College, 232
Visual Aids, in history of education, 434
Vittorino da Feltre, 103
Vocational education, 50, 290, 337
 German, seventeenth century, 404, 425
Vocational guidance, 61, 290
- Washington, Booker T., 35
Webster, Noah, 120, 347
Willard, Frances, 347
Women, education of, 194, 245, 398
World War II, impact on education, 134
- Xenophon, 433, 442
- Yale University, 385

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